

**PUBLIC EDUCATION
IN MARYLAND**



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PUBLIC EDUCATION IN MARYLAND

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The General Education Board: An account of its Activities 1902-1914. Cloth, 254 pages, with 32 full-page illustrations and 31 maps.

Public Education in Maryland, By ABRAHAM FLEXNER and FRANK P. BACHMAN. 196 pages, with 25 full-page illustrations and 34 cuts.

OCCASIONAL PAPERS

1. **The Country School of To-morrow,** By FREDERICK T. GATES. Paper, 15 pages.

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Report of the Secretary of the General Education Board, 1914-1915.

Occasional Paper II: Changes Needed in American Secondary Education, By CHARLES W. ELIOT.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN MARYLAND

A REPORT TO THE
MARYLAND EDUCATIONAL
SURVEY COMMISSION

BY
ABRAHAM FLEXNER
AND
FRANK P. BACHMAN

NEW YORK
THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

61 BROADWAY
1916

PREFACE

The Act of 1914, Chapter 844, which created our commission, contains the following statement of the purposes of the legislature:

“It is the desire of the General Assembly that there be made a comprehensive study of the public school system of the State of Maryland, of the state-aided elementary and secondary schools and the higher educational institutions of the State of Maryland, with a view to correlating and coördinating the different institutions wholly or partially supported by state appropriations.”

The Act also set forth in its premises:

“That the Commission shall have the power to . . . call to its assistance any expert help that may be available either from public or private foundations.”

An appropriation of \$5,000 was made to carry out the purposes of the Legislature. As this was clearly insufficient to conduct so extensive a survey as that contemplated by the Act, it became evident that the Legislature intended that the commission should secure the services of one of the great foundations now conducting educational surveys throughout the states. After careful consideration the commission requested the General Education Board to undertake the survey. The

Board consented to do so, generously agreeing at the same time to supplement the legislative appropriation to the extent of \$7,500 or such part thereof as might be needed.

The commission stated to the representatives of the General Education Board that it was the commission's opinion that the State of Maryland could not afford at the present time to increase its appropriations for public schools. The commission therefore asked the General Education Board not to draw a plan for an ideal school system in Maryland which would be beyond the state's resources, but rather to indicate whether or not the State of Maryland was getting the best results from the money now expended, and if not, in what manner the same sum could be expended to better advantage.

It should be a source of gratification to the people of the state that the representatives of the Board have reported that the present appropriation, if properly supplemented by the counties, and wisely and correctly applied, should give Maryland an excellent public school system.

The report which is now presented embodies a survey of the elementary and secondary schools of the counties. It does not deal with the schools of Baltimore City. Nor does it cover the higher educational institutions receiving state aid. It is the purpose of the commission, if continued in office by the Legislature, to conduct a survey of these institutions. A study of education in this state would not be complete without such a survey. The Act of 1914 wisely contemplated "correlating and co-

ordinating the different institutions wholly or partially supported by state appropriations."

The evident object is to provide a plan whereunder a student will be able to pass from the lowest grade of public school, to and through the highest that state-aided institutions offer, with the least possible delay and at the least possible cost to the state. The object has our entire approval.

The State of Maryland expends \$269,000 per annum for the aid of higher educational institutions, besides making large additional appropriations for the erection of new buildings. The people of the state are entitled to know whether this money is wisely and efficiently expended and if the state is receiving an adequate return.

As the original agreement between the commission and the General Education Board covered the survey of the higher institutions as well as the lower schools, the new survey should be conducted without further cost to the state except for an appropriation of \$1,000 for the actual expenses of the commission, such as printing, clerical work, travelling expenses, etc.

In view of the fact that a thorough survey of this character will furnish the only correct basis on which a sound judgment as to the future can be based, the commission respectfully suggests that it may be detrimental to the best interest of the state to cripple any educational institution that has any possibility of being moulded into such a plan by failure to make the usual appropriation for such institution at the present session. It also feels

in duty bound to urge upon the Legislature that no appropriation for educational institutions of any character be increased until the Legislature has before it for guidance all of the fundamental facts, supplemented by studies of the experiences of other states in the various fields of education, and aided by the unbiased opinion of experts based upon these facts and studies. No matter how pressing the present need of any institution may appear to be, an increased appropriation may prove to be not only a waste of state funds, but an actual impediment in the formation of the plan of coördination contemplated by the Act of 1914.

The present report of the General Education Board has the unqualified endorsement of the commission. It is the work of Mr. Abraham Flexner and Dr. Frank P. Bachman, assisted in special lines by Mr. Jackson Davis and Mr. W. W. Theisen. Mr. Flexner, now one of the secretaries of the General Education Board, was formerly connected with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching; he is the author of *The American College*, *Medical Education in the United States and Canada*, *Medical Education in Europe*, and numerous papers dealing with educational subjects. Dr. Bachman has served as Assistant Superintendent of the schools of Cleveland, and was a member of the staff of experts, who, headed by Professor Hanus, conducted the survey of the schools of New York City. He has also taken an important part in similar investigations elsewhere. He has published books entitled, "Problems in Elementary

School Administration" and "Principles of Elementary Education"; his contributions to the New York school survey deal with the elementary schools and the school budget. Mr. Davis, formerly State Supervisor of Negro Rural Schools of Virginia, is now the Field Agent of the General Education Board in charge of its work in Negro Education. Mr. Theisen is an experienced teacher, now working in the field of educational statistics. Dr. Bachman was in local charge of the Maryland Survey and himself visited every county in the state.

In the course of the survey Dr. Bachman visited over 16 per cent. of the white teachers and 10 per cent. of the colored teachers of the state. Schools were visited at random, and for this reason those visited were probably typical of existing conditions. Dr. Bachman had the full coöperation of the State Board of Education, of the State Superintendent of Education, and of the school authorities throughout the state.

The Federal Census of 1910 ranks Maryland among the states of the Union as twenty-third in point of illiteracy. If full allowance is made for the 20 per cent. Negro population of the state, the results are still very discouraging.

It is a source of congratulation that the remedy is demonstrably clear and comparatively simple. The needed corrections in the school machinery are pointed out in the report. These can be promptly made. The necessary legislation to this end is embraced in proposed bills which will be presented to the Legislature.

But no legislation will produce results unless our schools are divorced from politics. Public opinion in the United States has long since endorsed the view that education and politics will not mix. The welfare of over two hundred thousand school children in the counties of Maryland is at stake, as well as the happiness and prosperity of generations to come. Proper education is fundamental to good citizenship, to the progress of communities, and to the state as a whole. The problem of educating our children strikes deep into the very roots of state welfare and penetrates into nearly every home.

Good schools cannot be made or sustained upon any other basis than intelligence and common sense. Political conditions and questions vary in the counties; the needs of the schools are almost identical. They should have no relation whatsoever to the political problems of a county.

We venture to say that this is the view of all right-thinking politicians. We do not believe that it is their aim or desire to mix politics with education. It so happens, however, that our school laws recognize the existence of political parties and have been framed to invite political activity.

The opportunity has come to remodel our public school laws. We have the facts before us together with the best expert advice. If this advice is followed, the State of Maryland should very soon be able to wipe out the blot of illiteracy and greatly to improve the type of education provided for the children of the state.

In other states the problem of reorganizing an educational system is very complex and very difficult. It is comparatively simple in our state. The commission respectfully submits herewith to the Legislature copies of proposed bills drafted in line with its recommendations. We most earnestly urge their passage by the Legislature of 1916.

Respectfully submitted to His Excellency Governor Phillips Lee Goldsborough, December 20, 1915.

(Signed) B. HOWELL GRISWOLD, JR. (Chairman)

J. MCPHERSON SCOTT

ALBERT W. SISK

INTRODUCTION

In the following pages an effort is made to describe the organization of public education in Maryland, to estimate its efficiency, and to suggest such changes as appear at once desirable and feasible.

The people of Maryland will find some grounds for gratification as they read this volume. Public education in Maryland is on the whole soundly organized; at the head stands the State Board of Education, acting through the State Superintendent upon the local unit, which is—as it should be—the county, not the district or the township as is the case in less well-organized states. American experience stamps this type of state educational organization as the best that can be devised, for it allows at one and the same time for local initiative and for central direction, both of which are indispensable. Further, the state deals generously with its public schools in the matter of money. Some of the counties, as we shall learn, do less than their duty in this matter, but the state has been liberal—too liberal, indeed, with such counties as have failed to help themselves. We do not propose, therefore, any fundamental changes in the general structure of the public school system of Maryland nor do we suggest that the state increase at all its appropriations to the schools.

So far the people of Maryland have, as we have said, reason to be satisfied. But there are other aspects which will cause grave concern. A system of public education, in the main soundly conceived, yields on the whole extremely unsatisfactory results. A few counties possess good and steadily improving schools; a good school may be found here and there in other counties. But the large majority of the schools are poor; teachers are, for the most part, poorly trained; instruction is ineffective and obsolete; children attend school with disastrous irregularity; school buildings are far too often in unsatisfactory condition, school grounds frequently neglected and untidy.

How can a fundamentally sound system produce such results?

There are, indeed, a good many reasons. The state possesses a sound organization in skeleton or outline only. Neither the State Department of Education nor the office of the County Superintendent is so manned and equipped that they are really effective for the purposes for which they exist. The State Superintendent is charged with many important duties, but he has only a single assistant to help him in discharging them. The County Superintendency is in even more unsatisfactory condition. In the first place, the law does not even require the County Superintendent to be a trained or experienced school man; in the second place, adequate provision for skilled assistance exists in only one or two counties. In most counties, therefore, an untrained official without expert aid certifies teachers, arranges courses of study, super-

vises instruction, and examines for promotion pupils who attend school regularly or not, as they or their parents please.

Finally, the state's large school fund is not distributed so as to accomplish the greatest possible good. For it is distributed almost unconditionally. The counties get their quota whether they do their educational duty or not, with the result that the backward counties sometimes do much less than they ought and some well-to-do counties do much less than they should. The state fund thus becomes a source of positive demoralization. It can be converted into a real help and stimulus only if payment by the state is conditioned upon the performance of local duty.

In view of these conditions it is easy enough to understand why a fundamentally correct type of organization produces unsatisfactory educational results in Maryland. But, as a matter of fact, the state does not even fare as well with its present organization as it might: why not?

A few words suffice to explain. Public education in Maryland is "in politics." Politics are apt to prevent the State Board from acting with vigor; to determine the composition of the county boards; to affect the choice of the county superintendents; even to enter into the selection of the one-room rural school teacher. Of course, there are exceptions. Some of the county boards are excellent; some schools are entirely free from political taint. But, in general, political and personal

considerations impair the vigor, independence, thoroughness, and efficiency of the school system. The public does not begin to realize the seriousness of the political infection or the damage it does.

The following chapters discuss in detail the situation which has thus been briefly summarized. It is hoped that legislation supplementing and improving the present state system may result. But even should this be the case, public education will continue to disappoint, unless higher ideals result in completely divorcing education from politics.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN MARYLAND

Public Education in Maryland

I. MARYLAND AND ITS SCHOOLS

BEFORE undertaking to describe or to discuss education in Maryland it is necessary to know the state itself. The very fact that we nowadays begin with an inquiry of this kind is significant. It means that there is no single educational pattern that ought to be applied to every state or to every county in any state regardless of local conditions. Not only the substance but the end of education must be defined with reference to the needs and opportunities of the people who are to be educated.

Maryland is a border state, lying midway between North and South; in population and occupations it is therefore partly Northern and partly Southern. It differs, however, from all other states of the Union in the extent of its water area, for of a total area of 12,210 square miles, almost one-fifth (2,319 square miles) is water. Of the estimated state population, 1,300,000, 43 per cent., live in the city of Baltimore; a dozen small cities raise the urban population to just about 50 per cent. From the standpoint of numbers, therefore, the state is half urban and half rural. If, however, the city of Balti-

more is ignored, an overwhelming percentage of the rest of the population live in the country. Maryland is, therefore, with the exception of its one great city, a rural state with an unusual water development. Its rural character is clearer from the educational than from any other point of view; for of 388,486 children of legal school age in the state, 234,900 live outside Baltimore City. For education this is a fact of prime importance.

The Federal Census of 1910 shows that more than five hundred occupations are carried on in Maryland. Of these a few are regional—mining, for example, in the mountain regions, fishing and oystering about the Chesapeake. Baltimore thrives on manufacturing, trade, and transportation. Outside of Baltimore, agriculture predominates. Indeed, one-third of all the wage-earners outside that city and 21 per cent. of those in the entire state are engaged in one branch of farming or another.

Agriculture has prospered in Maryland, though less so than in some other parts of the country. In the last decade the number of farms has increased by something over 6 per cent.; the value of farm property has increased by 40 per cent.; farms now average slightly over 100 acres as opposed to twice that size in 1850. Simultaneously with the decrease in the size of the farms, the number of owners has increased. The tenant farmer, so apt to be an unfavorable symptom, is not prominent and is disappearing. The significance of these facts for our

inquiry is obvious. As the city of Baltimore is not included in this study, we are called on to deal with a system of schools serving mainly a rural population.

The population of Maryland grows steadily, but no longer rapidly. The state ranked sixth with 320,000 inhabitants in 1790; it ranks twenty-seventh with over four times that number to-day. Its population is unusually stable. In 1910 about 80 per cent. of those living in the state were born there, while only 8 per cent. were foreign born. In the rural districts this condition is even more marked; there the percentages were 84 per cent. born and living in the state; 3.7 per cent. foreign born. The border-line situation of the state adds, however, a complication; for approximately one-fifth of the population belongs to the Negro race. The schools of Maryland serve then in the main native races, living largely in the country, the Negro race being numerous enough to make a heavy demand on the state.

The history of the state need not be reviewed in this connection; but a single fact of outstanding importance must be noted. In the development of its institutions, as in the South generally, the county has from the beginning played a vital part. The Maryland county is not an aggregate of smaller units, such as towns and townships; it is the original and fundamental governing unit. The state began with counties; eleven were created between 1637 and 1695. Division into election and school districts took place later and simply for purposes of convenience. The priority of the county is, as we shall ob-

serve, a fortunate circumstance from the educational point of view.

As early as 1671 legislative efforts to provide schools or colleges "for the education of youth in learning and virtue" are recorded. But despite intermittent agitation, the better part of a century passed before certain schools were established, which were the forerunners of the "academies" established during the latter part of the eighteenth and the early part of the nineteenth centuries. Of these academies we shall learn more later. Suffice it to say here that they represented mainly the concern of the state for the education of the upper classes. Not until 1812 was an effort made to provide elementary schools for the poor.

Thereafter, developments were fairly rapid. In 1825 an ambitious scheme, never put into full operation, created by legislative action a complete system of public instruction, beginning with a superintendent at the top and ending with county and district organization at the bottom. The system failed; but efforts did not cease. Forty years later a new state system was established by the constitution of 1864. This system, distinguished by the great power conferred on the State Board and the State Superintendent, was evidently premature; for three years later a new constitution sounded its death knell.

The State Board and the State Superintendent were abolished in the following year (1868); the county and the district thus became supreme. Well-founded



Modern one-room rural school plant

Attractive yard, playgrounds in rear, and ample space for experimental orchard and farm. Entrance porch and hall, cloak-rooms, teacher's room, class-room lighted from one side, single desks, slate blackboards, ventilator, heater, with fuel room adjoining, and room for manual training and cooking.

discontent led gradually to the revival of central state educational agencies; and thus by 1900 the system had attained the form in which this volume finds it.

Though the facts will emerge as our study proceeds, it may be worth while, by means of a brief statistical statement, to show in advance the extent and importance of Maryland's educational interests. In the 23 counties of Maryland, and exclusive of Baltimore city, there are 1,935 white and 550 colored schools; the children of school age (6 to 18) number 275,503 white and 63,964 colored; 200,783 white children and 44,475 colored are enrolled. The state employs upward of 5,000 white and almost 1,000 colored teachers. Its annual outlay is more than \$5,000,000, one-half of which is spent outside the city of Baltimore. We are about to inquire how wisely this large sum is spent and whether or not the people of Maryland could spend it more wisely than they do.

II. THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

PUBLIC education in America has developed most satisfactorily in those states in which a judicious combination of state and local authority has been effected. The reason is plain. The influence of the state makes for unity of design and uniformity of standard; local initiative ensures the interest, effort, pride, and sacrifice of the community to which the school belongs. The public school system of Maryland is of this prevailing American type. The state determines the general outlines, while the details are largely managed by local authorities. We shall in this chapter describe the organization and operation of the State Board, discussing its part in centralizing educational administration.

The State Board consists of eight members of whom the Governor and the State Superintendent are two. The remaining six, of whom at least two must represent the political party defeated at the last preceding election for Governor, are appointed by the Governor, subject to confirmation by the Senate. Appointments run six years, two terms expiring every two years. Thus a total change of membership requires something more than a single gubernatorial term. The political complexion

may, however, be altered, whenever a Governor is elected whose politics differ from the politics of his predecessor. The present Board, a majority of whom are Republicans, consists of the Governor (a lawyer), the State Superintendent (an educator), a retired publisher, a banker, a manufacturer, a lawyer, and two college presidents.

We shall, in a moment, discuss the functions, powers, and duties of the State Board. But it is important to call attention at the outset to the fact that the arrangement above described makes the State Department of Education part and parcel of the elected state government and thus exposes it—and, with it, public education in general—to the vicissitudes of state politics. It is not a question as to whether, at this time, or indeed at any time, the State Department has been “in politics.” It is enough to point out that the statute regulating the personnel of the Board looks in that direction. Governors should, of course, be sufficiently wise and strong to prevent local or national politics from determining the composition of the State Board and thus influencing school administration; and Maryland may be fortunate enough to escape the dangers to which she is exposed by the terms of the statute. But it is assuredly safer to diminish the danger. The law should be drawn on the theory that while the people, through the State Board, decide general educational policies, the Board should be so constituted as to avoid the ups and downs of party contests.

How should a State Board of Education be constituted and what should be its functions? There is as yet no

agreement in practice on either point. It happens therefore that in some states the Board is an ex-officio body; in others a lay body; sometimes it is composed of both laymen and educators. The duties laid upon the Board also vary greatly from state to state. In one place its functions are nominal; in another, detailed and responsible. As a rule, the powers exercised by state boards have grown by accretion, uncontrolled by a clear conception of what is aimed at.

Meanwhile, in the light of our experience, it may safely be said that the State Board should be essentially a lay body representing the people in large matters of educational policy and keeping the viewpoint, experience, and need of the layman before the school executive. Obviously a Board, made up of laymen and meeting a few times a year, cannot be charged with the direct execution of matters of policy nor can it undertake to decide and supervise in matters of detail. It is rather to be regarded as a criticising, suggesting, and reviewing body, that the Superintendent must consult and convince in regard to all decisions of moment. The Board cannot supersede the Superintendent, but it can make sure that he does his duty and can enormously assist him with suggestion and counsel.

The Maryland State Board does not appear to be constituted according to any clear principle, nor have all its functions been logically arrived at. As the Governor and State Superintendent are members, the membership is partly ex-officio; it contains, besides, both laymen and

educators. Its duties are varied, not to say indiscriminate, for it is at once a legislative, a judicial, and an executive agency. As a legislating educational body, it makes courses of study, determines the minimum requirements for the degrees conferred by the academic institutions of the state, passes on the qualifications of regular high school teachers, and classifies high schools that are to receive state aid. As an executive, it is expected to enforce the school laws, which will be described in the course of this report—and, when necessary, to employ legal proceedings to that end. On the judicial side, it interprets school legislation, deciding controversies and disputes, and even possesses, though it has not used, the power to remove from office an inefficient County Superintendent. Finally, the State Board also administers the state normal schools, manages the state teachers' retirement fund, and grants professional certificates valid throughout the state and for life to teachers of experience and established reputation.

In exercising its authority and carrying out its will, the State Board acts through its secretary and executive officer, the Superintendent of Public Education. Aside for the moment from the question as to whether the State Board should or should not possess the particular powers above enumerated, it is clear that adequate execution of the law depends primarily on the State Superintendent. As the Superintendent is not omnipresent and cannot make himself efficiently felt through circulars, blanks, and documents, he cannot make the

State Department effective unless he possesses an adequate organization and is vigorously supported both by the Board and by public opinion. As a matter of fact, not one of these three conditions is satisfactorily fulfilled.

The State Superintendent's staff, as we shall more fully observe in the next chapter, consists of himself, an assistant, and a clerk—an organization altogether inadequate to the duties laid upon it. Public opinion in the state is in the main indifferent. The State Board, partly for this reason, partly because of the way it is constituted, frequently acts on the theory that friendly and patient pressure may in the long run accomplish more than would be achieved by vigorous measures. It follows inevitably that the State Board does not enforce all the laws. In some instances the law is simply ignored; in others it is applied with considerable laxity. For example, the statute requires that county superintendents "shall devote their entire time to public school business."¹ The State Board of Education is not unaware of the fact that in the counties of Somerset, Calvert, and Montgomery the county superintendents now in office do not "devote their entire time to public school business." Again, the law provides that "no persons shall be employed as teachers unless such persons shall hold a certificate of qualification."² The State Board knows that this law is disregarded, as, for

¹Public School Laws of Maryland, Chap. XI, Sec. 80.

²Public School Laws of Maryland, Chap VIII, Sec. 53.

example, in the counties of Caroline and Dorchester. Thus neither of these important statutes is well enforced.

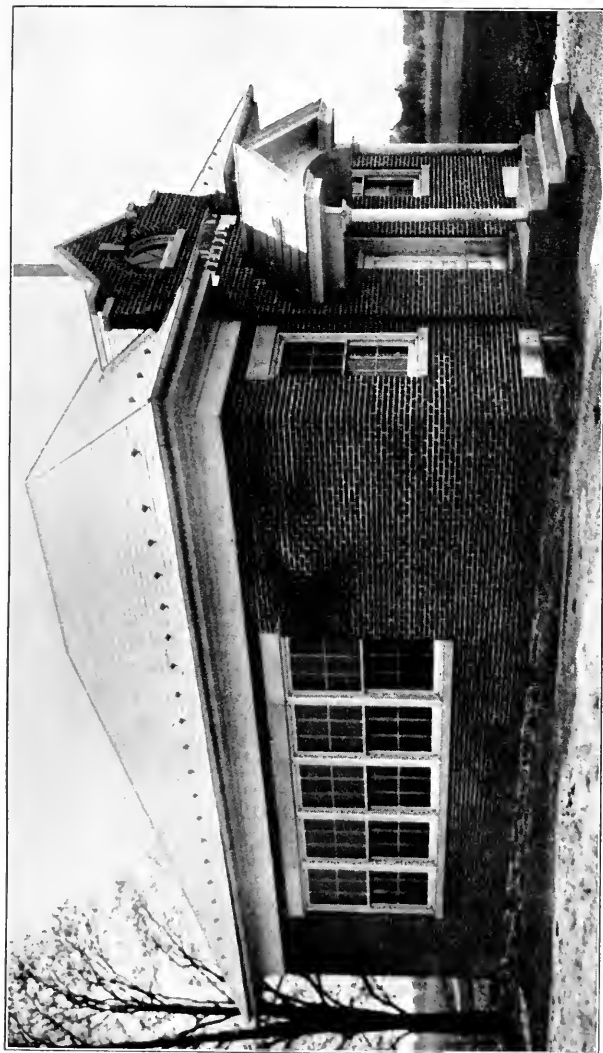
It must, however, in fairness be said that inefficiency sometimes results from defects in the law itself. For example, nothing is more important than uniformity at a high level in the training of teachers. Unfortunately, in Maryland, several agencies, working independently of each other, participate in determining the qualifications of teachers. The State Board grants teaching certificates valid for life, and in so far regulates one important part of the teaching profession. At the same time, the State Superintendent and the county superintendents control other parts of the teaching profession. Thus, in respect to certification—a matter of crucial importance—the law prevents the execution of a consistent and effective policy.

Again, waste or ineffectiveness results when powers which should be lodged in the State Superintendent are delegated to the State Board. The Board is, for example, required to interpret the laws and to decide controversies arising under them. Such questions are at times presented to the Board as part of the regular docket; at times special meetings are called for their consideration, now at Annapolis, again at some remote corner of the state. Perhaps one-fourth of the Board's time is thus consumed. If the Board had not had to sit as a court in such matters, there would probably have been no occasion to hold six special meetings in 1912, four in 1913, and five in 1915.

Here again the law is responsible for inefficiency. The State Board should not be required to exercise judicial functions. Its members are widely scattered; most of them lack legal training and experience; they meet regularly only four times a year, and even then but for a few hours. They should not be expected to deal with matters of minute detail or technical nature. The trained Superintendent who has their confidence should act for them and without their intervention in deciding technical points. Such is already the practice in certain states—among others, Illinois, Kentucky, New York, and Virginia—in all of which the interpretation of the school law and the handling of appeals from county and town authorities are given over to the executive officer of the Board.

To some extent inefficiency has also arisen because the Board, given a specific responsibility, has misconceived the manner in which that responsibility should be met. The State Board is—as it should be—the Board of Trustees of the state normal schools. It has, indeed, no more important duty, for from these schools, the Baltimore Normal School, the Frostburg Normal School, and the Normal and Industrial School at Bowie, come and will continue to come the major part of the trained teachers in the elementary schools of the state.

Now, what should the board of trustees of a normal school do? In the first place, the board should select the school head, and in conference with him determine the general policy of the institution. It should visit,



Excellent, modern rural school

inspect, and control. But it should not conduct the school. If the head of the institution is competent, he should, in coöperation with the faculty of the institution, devise detailed plans and submit nominations to the State Board. In respect to these matters, the Board should be a sort of jury, whom the principal and his associates must convince of the propriety and wisdom of their suggestions. It is, of course, within the duty of the Board also to make suggestions in the course of their discussions. But the initiative should lie with the school head and staff. The Board cannot possess the technical knowledge, training, and experience, nor has it the time, to "run" the school. Unless the head and faculty of the normal schools are capable of discharging their proper functions, they are unequal to their task and should be replaced.

The State Board now manages the normal schools through committees. Each institution is in charge of a committee made up of three members of the State Board, the chairman of the Committee being in a sense its representative and active agent. These sub-committees are so important that the State Board is in danger of excessive deference to them in the appointment of principals and teachers and in the determination of details of policy. To be sure, the principals of the normal schools have the right to appear before the Board on questions connected with their institutions. But advantage is seldom taken of this privilege. There is, moreover, no evidence to show that principals have been or have been expected to

be properly active in making known the larger needs of their schools or in outlining the steps in advance to be taken by them. Indeed, the more important changes in the course of study, in entrance requirements and the like, made within recent years, have had their origin with the State Superintendent. Again, principals have no particular responsibility in the matter of finding and recommending to the State Board qualified teachers to fill vacancies. Applications for positions may be sent to them, but quite as often they are sent to the State Board. Even though such applications are subsequently referred to the principal, it is evident that there exists an unfortunate doubt as to just where initiative belongs.

The State Board should of course continue to exercise a strong and vigilant control over the normal schools, but the character of this control needs to be modified. Direct responsibility should be imposed upon the principals for working out plans for the training of teachers and for the development and improvement of their schools. Larger opportunity should be afforded them for the exercise of their powers in the management of their respective institutions. Thereupon the State Board must hold them to strict account for results.

In respect to other technical points, the policy of the Board has been generally sound. The Board, for example, is authorized to prepare courses of study. In the elementary schools the statute specifies the subjects, but leaves the Board to determine details; in the high schools, normal schools, and colleges, the Board has

practically complete power. In these matters the Board depends, as it should depend, on its executive officer to lead, suggest, and devise. The details of the prescribed curricula will be taken up in connection with the different types of school. Suffice it at this point to say that the State Board, through its executive officer, has given no little attention of late years to courses of study, to the end that instruction might be better adapted to economic and social needs. The courses of study for both the elementary schools and the high schools were revised in 1901, in 1907, and in 1913. Important changes were made in the course for the normal schools in 1905 and in 1908, and a complete revision of college courses for teachers is now under way. As we shall hereafter see,¹ it is, however, one thing to recast a course of study and another thing to recast the actual instruction given in the schools. The course of study, while still needing revision, has probably improved in recent years rather faster than the teaching through which it is administered.

The Board has, though not without some excuse,² done less well in regard to its recording and reporting methods. As far back as 1872, the legislature empowered the State Board "to issue a uniform series of blanks for the use of teachers and of county boards, and to require all records to be kept and reports to be made on these forms." Accordingly, the State Board through its

¹Chapter VIII, "Instruction."

²Viz., the lack of necessary assistance.

executive officer has prescribed a system of school records covering, among other things, the financial transactions of the county boards, the daily records and term reports of the teachers, records and reports for approved high schools, and forms for the annual report of the county superintendents—a degree of uniformity found in few other states. The value of these uniform records can scarcely be overestimated, for modern school administration rests not upon personal opinion, but upon objective facts, such as these forms aim to elicit. Unfortunately, the blanks now prescribed by the State Board are by no means perfect, either as to form or as to the data called for. It would be a great improvement to adopt the financial forms suggested by the National Bureau of Education and the educational blanks recommended by the Committee of the National Education Association on Uniform Blanks and Reports.

There is, of course, no virtue in the mere accumulation of statistical data in the State Department of Education. The endless filling out of blanks is largely a waste of time unless the data accumulated are studied, interpreted, and utilized. As the Board is required by law to issue an annual Report and is allowed in its discretion to issue special pamphlets from time to time, opportunity to utilize the data collected cannot be said to be lacking.

The Reports thus far issued, while comparing not unfavorably with reports issued by many other states, do not make effective use of the material available. A school report should not only give an account of what has

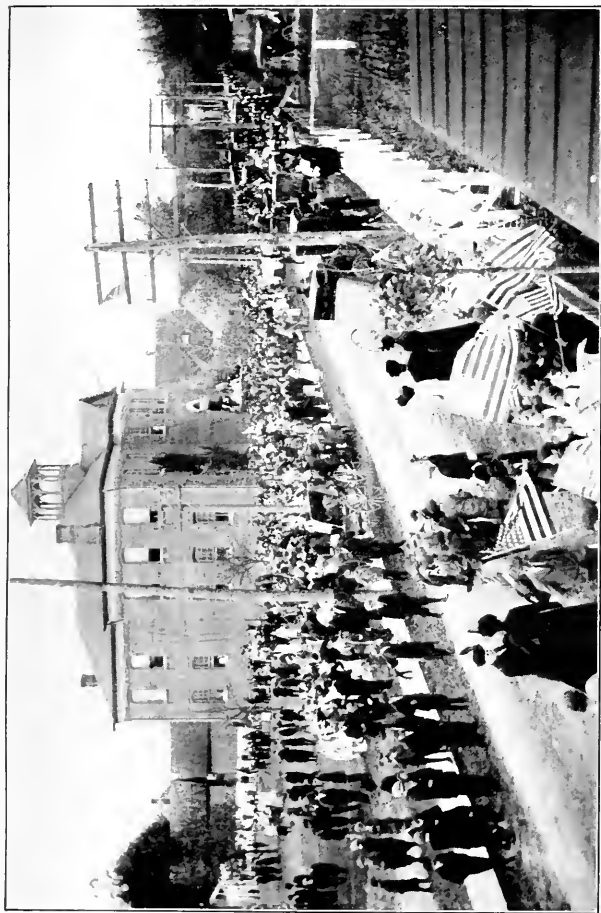
happened, but should develop, expound, and recommend educational policy. It should exhibit vividly not only achievements, but needs, difficulties, and opportunities as well. A well-written report is the most effective means of communication between the Board of Education and the people of the state.

The Annual Report of the State Board, prepared by the Superintendent, is now a volume of some 400 pages. It could be greatly reduced, and to that extent improved as a means of communication, by omitting such matter as the abstract of the proceedings of the Maryland State Teachers' Association, which are, as a matter of fact, separately published by the Department, and the alphabetical list of the teachers of the state—a separate publication of which would serve the purpose better. The reports of the county school boards could be much condensed. In place of what is thus omitted, the Report, utilizing the data obtained on the blanks above described, should present in narrative and graphic form the essential facts bearing upon the preparation and salaries of teachers, the attendance and classification of children, the condition of schoolhouses, and the financial support of the school system. Such information would supply a solid basis for deciding upon educational policies and for determining administrative and supervisory action. Each report might well carry some important message to the people. One might “feature” Compulsory School Attendance, another, The Sanitary Conditions and Care of Schoolhouses, still another, Better Pre-

pared Teachers. Obviously the executive officer of the Board, with his present force, cannot act on these suggestions. This, however, is simply another reason for placing larger resources at its command.

The State Board is not unmindful of the value of an aroused public interest in education. Indeed, not a little has been done within the last two years to centre the attention of the people upon their schools. Educational mass-meetings and school exhibits, authorized and encouraged by the State Board, were held in 1914 in all but two counties of the state. There was usually a parade of the school children of the county, competitive athletic games, fancy drills, a display of school work, and a mass-meeting at which addresses were given by persons of prominence upon the work and needs of the schools. As many as eight to ten thousand attended these Educational Rallies in a single county. Some of those attending realized for the first time the number of children there are to be educated. Others saw for the first time an exhibit of what the modern school does, and appreciated as never before the significance of public education to the youth of the state. Few, indeed, of all the many thousands attending these great meetings, failed to pledge their loyal support to the schools.

The State Board has wisely resolved to continue this campaign for enlightened public sentiment. The failure year after year of counties to take advantage of the liberal aid offered by the state for particular kinds of elementary education; the demand of certain counties to



School rally day

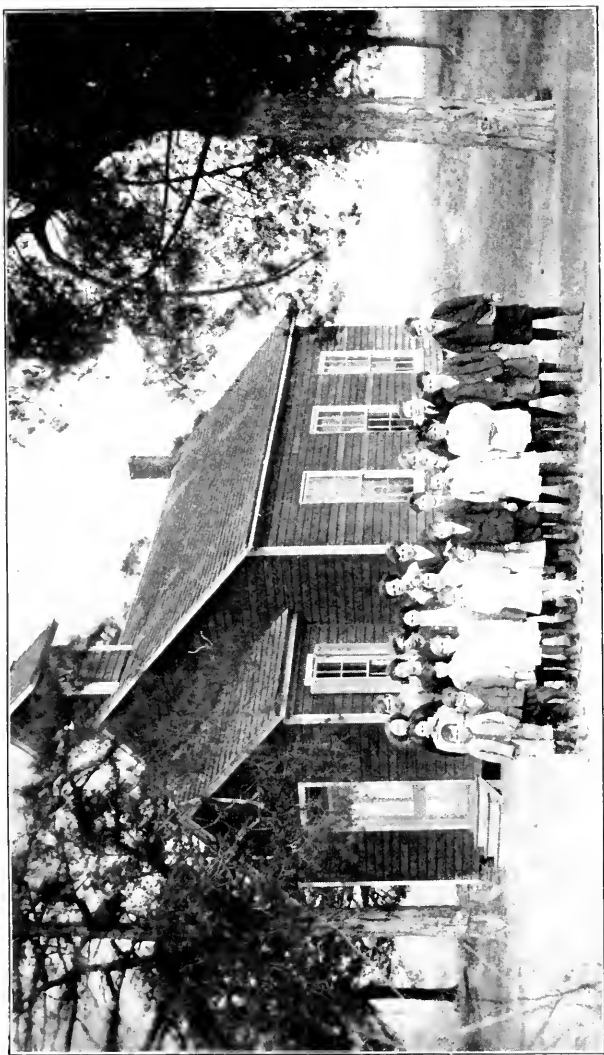
be exempt from the provisions of laws regulating the length of the school term, the minimum salary for teachers, compulsory school attendance and the like; the meagre local support of the schools in certain counties—are all due more to the stagnant condition of public sentiment than to any other single cause. It is the business of the State Board not only to carry on, but to develop, popular education as fast as public sentiment can be created and the necessary resources found.

Summarizing, we may conclude that the Maryland statutes are sound in providing a State Board of Education, though the body as constituted requires reconstruction. The staff of the office should be increased so that the laws can be more intelligently and uniformly applied; and largely through its activities an aroused public opinion must be developed, ready to follow when the state authorities give the word.

III. THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

THE State Superintendent of Public Education in an American commonwealth is the head of its public school system. As such, he is the executive officer of the State Board; he represents the Board in the long intervals between its meetings; he is the professional adviser of the Board in session; his position makes it possible for him to unite and to direct the educational forces of the state. Whatever the limits upon his legal powers in this respect, a man of tact, force, and resourcefulness can exert an influence that goes far beyond his actual authority. As all our states are, educationally speaking, still in the relatively early stages of their development, the state superintendency offers a splendid field for well-endowed and well-trained educational statesmen.

In Maryland the Superintendent of Public Education is appointed by the Governor in the second year of his term, "by and with the consent of the Senate" and holds office for four years—as does the Governor who appoints him. Professional qualifications there are none, the vague word "competent" being the only limitation upon the Governor's freedom of choice. The salary of the Superintendent, which may not exceed \$3,000 a year, is



Better rural school of the old model

fixed by the State Board, which possesses also a qualified veto on his removal. For though the Governor may remove the State Superintendent at his pleasure, the act, to be valid, must be sanctioned by a vote of two-thirds of the Board. In these provisions, as in the provisions regulating appointment to the State Board, there is, once more, evidence of lack of clear thinking. For the Superintendent, who is the state's educational executive, should be chosen, not by the Governor, but by a board as far removed from political influences as possible, for a term either indefinite or long enough to avoid danger of political complications.

Aside from his duties as member of the State Board, and as the executive who carries out the Board's orders, the Superintendent of Public Education exercises certain powers and performs certain duties in his individual capacity. These duties are both supervisory and inspectional in character. For example, he accepts or rejects in his discretion normal school and college diplomas issued by other states; defines the qualifications of teachers of special branches in high school domestic science, manual training, etc.; rates teachers who, not being normal school graduates, offer instead some supposedly equivalent training plus practical experience; and examines the reports and expenditures of the county school boards. The Superintendent is, moreover, authorized to prepare and distribute pamphlets to teachers giving information as to the best methods of instruction in the various studies pursued in the schools.

For our present purpose it is immaterial whether the Superintendent is called on to do a particular thing in his own capacity or on the order of the State Board. Our real concern is as to the efficiency with which the work of the department has been carried on. In passing judgment on this point, an important distinction must be made. The "mechanics" of the office have been well attended to, better indeed than one could reasonably expect with existing facilities. Modern methods of handling business have been introduced, correspondence is promptly disposed of, records are well kept and easily accessible. On the other hand, the larger opportunities have not been met and under existing circumstances cannot be met. True enough, the department has, over and above the explicit requirements of the statute, in recent years initiated certain progressive measures of great importance: it has, for example, secured legislation providing for state aid to and supervision of high schools, for state certification of high school teachers, and for a minimum professional training in case of elementary school teachers. These measures, however, represent only a "drive" in one direction or another. The department has been unable to follow them up vigorously and steadily or to give the requisite attention to other large problems of equal urgency.

The reason is plain. Nothing is simpler than to authorize or require the State Superintendent to "supervise," "inspect," "examine," or "pass upon." But neither inspection, supervision, nor examination can avail, unless

an adequate trained organization is provided through which he can work. As has been pointed out in the preceding chapter, the force at the Superintendent's disposal is utterly insufficient. He has a single assistant appointed with the approval of the State Board at a salary of \$2,000 and one clerk at a salary not to exceed \$1,200. In addition to his own salary, he has an expense allowance of five hundred dollars, and one thousand dollars more for furniture, supplies, and printing.¹ Three persons thus constitute the entire staff at the disposal of the State Superintendent of Education in Maryland. It goes without saying that the functions which we have enumerated simply cannot be effectively discharged by this organization.

In lieu of an organized and specialized staff of which he would be the directing and inspiring chief, the State Superintendent of Maryland obtains, as best he can, such knowledge of school conditions as will enable him and the State Board to perform their various duties as intelligently as may be. He therefore spends the major portion of his time in actually visiting schools in different parts of the state. Obviously he cannot thoroughly cover the field. He is thus compelled to assume that by hastily "sampling" the situation here and there, he obtains a fairly adequate conception of existing conditions. Thus he glances at the school grounds, notes the conditions of the buildings, and examines cursorily the school

¹The State Board has an appropriation of \$3,000 to cover the expenses of members in attending meetings, printing, supplies, etc. The department therefore costs the state \$10,700 a year, all told.

equipment. His main concern, in the brief period at his disposal, is, however, the teaching in progress. On the basis of a hurried inspection advice is tendered to teachers, principals, and school officials. In addition to these efforts to study and to improve schools scattered throughout the state, the Superintendent frequently participates in teachers' meetings and civic conferences. He maintains, besides, an active and voluminous correspondence with principals, county superintendents, and County School Board members throughout the state. Aside from information thus acquired, the Superintendent can know only what the county authorities report to him. But these reports are of very uneven quality; and the state department can under existing conditions do little either to improve them or to utilize the data which they obtain.

The high school situation may be cited to show the folly of not giving the State Superintendent staff enough to ensure the wise expenditure of the state's money or the effective execution of the state's policy. In 1910 a complete high school reorganization was undertaken on the basis of state aid. It was provided that, on the basis of reports made by high school principals, and inspections made by the State Superintendent, the high schools should be classified in two groups, those of the first group to receive an annual maximum grant of \$2,500 each, those of the second group to receive an annual maximum grant of \$1,400 each.¹ The law provides

¹In 1914 there were 29 first-class high schools, receiving from the state \$67,700; 36 second-class high schools, receiving \$50,400.

that every state-aided high school shall be inspected annually; if, on notification of defects, the proper remedial steps are not taken, the state subsidy is to cease.

The law thus creates for the State Superintendent the opportunity to direct the high school development of the state. He simply cannot take full advantage of this opportunity. The letter of the law has indeed been complied with: the Superintendent or his assistant has visited the high schools once a year. But the visit has been casual, concerning itself with ascertaining whether the formal requirements of the statute are complied with. Again, the last General Assembly provided that no person is to serve "as principal or assistant teacher (in a state-aided high school) whose qualifications have not been passed upon by the State Board of Education." To carry out the provisions of this act, the Board will need to prescribe the minimum qualifications for high school teachers, including principals, and then to examine the qualifications of the 300 regular high school teachers in service. Thus far the State Board has failed to move, not because it is difficult to prescribe the minimum qualifications of high school teachers, but rather, as we might suppose, because its executive officer, upon whom the duty falls, lacks the necessary time and assistance.

One more illustration, taken from a different field, that of school finance, may be worth giving. The public schools of Maryland are supported partly by local taxation, partly by apportionment of a state fund. The

State Superintendent is expected to safeguard the interest of both the state and the local taxpayer by examining the accounts of county school boards and reporting thereon to the State Board. It was evidently intended that the State Board should thus exercise a reasonable control over the finances of the county boards, in reference to acts omitted as well as acts committed. At any rate, such should be the policy of the state. Though the bookkeeping of the county boards is fixed except in minor details by the forms prescribed by the State Board of Education, the forms in use are quite defective. It is, for example, difficult to determine from them the exact financial status of a County Board, no separate accounts being kept with funded debt, current loans, ordinary receipts, and the like. It is even more difficult to determine the expenditure for separate items such, for instance, as new buildings, repairs, upkeep, and maintenance; and it is quite impossible to tell what the elementary schools and the high schools are each costing. The use of antiquated forms is undoubtedly to be attributed to the lack of a skilled accountant in the Superintendent's office. And the same lack accounts for the fact that, having received these reports, the State Superintendent can simply check them up and file them away.

The moral of the foregoing discussion is obvious. The Superintendent of Public Education in Maryland cannot be the state's educational leader unless he has proper assistance and support. The office can no longer

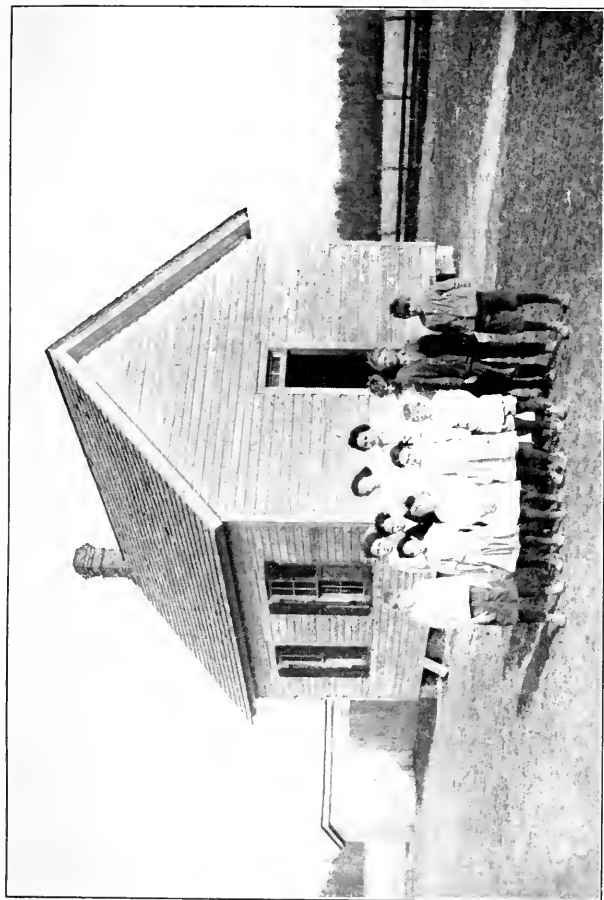
be conducted with its present force or on its present allowance. In ways that will appear as we proceed, the State Superintendent must be assisted by adding to his resources a few experts capable of taking the field under his direction in charge of specialized activities.

IV. THE COUNTY SCHOOL AUTHORITIES

CENTRAL control of public education is thus, as we have now seen, in the hands of the State Board and the Superintendent of Public Education. Local control is, in the main, exercised by a board of county school commissioners. The present chapter will discuss the functions of the local authorities and their relations with the state department.

Three forms of local educational administration are in use in this country: the district system, the township system, and the county unit. Of these the district and the county represent the two extremes. A word as to the district system may assist us to appreciate the importance of the form of organization that Maryland possesses.

Under the district system every school, as a rule, has an independent board of trustees, which "runs" the school, levying and collecting taxes, erecting the school-house, determining the length of the term, prescribing the curriculum, selecting text-books, and employing the teacher. The mere description at once suggests the defects of the scheme. In the first place, no state and no county contains as many persons qualified to manage schools intelligently as the district system requires.



Poor type of rural school

Single room, lighted from three sides, stove in centre, double desks, scanty blackboards, building neglected, grounds without shrubs or trees

Again, the district system accepts all sorts of inequalities in educational facilities and efforts. One district may possess a good school with ample grounds and comfortable buildings, while in another, close by, the school is wretchedly poor. No agency exists which can diminish these divergencies by working toward a general plan. Finally, teachers need teamwork and supervision if they are to keep in touch with professional progress. But teamwork and supervision presuppose a larger area than the district. The truth is that the district school reflects pioneer conditions. It goes back to the time when an isolated group, desiring some sort of education for its children, pooled its meagre resources in order to establish a neighborhood school. Increased wealth, larger numbers, improved communications, and more complicated educational requirements render the district system and the district school obsolete.

As the county organization offers a wider service, it tends to attract able men into the County Board; and as this body can dispose in its discretion of the total yield of the county school taxes plus the state apportionment, something like statesmanship may be employed in locating, equipping, and consolidating schools. Educational opportunities can thus more or less be equalized. The situation may, in a word, be viewed as a whole, the county schools forming a system in the development of which intelligence and design may be employed—provided, of course, the people are wise enough to take advantage of their opportunities.

Maryland is fortunate in possessing the county as the educational unit. Nevertheless, it has by no means realized to the full the advantages of the county type of organization, partly, as we shall see, because political and personal considerations are too apt to influence the selection and the policy of commissioners, partly because in the selection of teachers a vestige of the district system confuses and weakens administration.

The county boards of education in Maryland are appointed by the Governor and are composed of six members each in six counties,¹ and of three in the remaining counties. Continuity of service is secured through a six-year term, and through so ordering the appointments that there are at the end of each second year not to exceed two vacancies in the large counties and not more than one in the small counties. The County Board appoints three district trustees for each schoolhouse district. These district trustees are the custodians of the school property and have the power to select the principal teacher, subject to the approval of the County Board. All subordinate teachers and all high school teachers are appointed by the County Board. The district trustees may also remove any teacher they themselves appoint, though the teacher retains the right of appeal to the County Board. To these powers of the district trustees we shall have occasion later to recur.

The method of appointing the members of the County

¹These counties are Baltimore, Carroll, Frederick, Dorchester, Washington, and Montgomery.

Board is open to question. Undoubtedly, appointment by the Governor might draw into service men of character and standing who would not be willing to wage an electoral campaign for the post. The system, however, does not always work in that way. The law provides that at least two of the members in large counties and at least one in small counties must be of the political party defeated in the last election, and that these appointments must be made "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." These limitations make the partisan consideration needlessly prominent; in consequence, appointments are viewed by local politicians and local political organizations as "spoils," so that the County Board of Education is almost everywhere looked upon as a "Democratic" board or as a "Republican" board, with party allegiance and party interests to consider. Again, the "advice and consent of the Senate" have come to mean, not the approval of the entire Senate, but the approval of the local senator. Indeed, to such a pass has senatorial courtesy come, that the Senate flatly refuses to confirm an appointment not endorsed by the local senator. And the local senator is tempted to act not as the representative of the people, but rather as the spokesman of the county political organization. The office of county school commissioner is thus usually regarded as a political office, the public being for the most part indifferent to the dangers involved in this conception. The county boards are therefore in the main seriously infected with politics.

In order to discharge its functions the County Board must be in position to procure adequate school funds, to select the County Superintendent, and, through him and his assistants, to provide suitable facilities and competent teachers, whose work is from time to time inspected and supervised. Let us now see how the county boards do their work.

Money is the first requisite—money for buildings, for up-keep, for equipment, for teachers and supervision, but county school boards are not “authorized, empowered, directed, and required to levy and collect” such taxes as will be adequate to maintain an efficient school system throughout the county. The tax-levying body of the county is the county board of commissioners, who are required under the law to levy such sums of money as the County School Board requests for the schools, provided such sums shall not exceed 15 cents on each \$100 of the taxable property of the county; whether or not the county commissioners shall levy any amount in excess of 15 cents is left entirely to their discretion. Satisfactory county schools cannot possibly be maintained on a local levy of 15 cents on each \$100; in fact, every county of the state spends in excess of this rate. This limitation practically transfers the control of school finances from the County School Board to the county commissioners: thus, while the county school boards are, both by law and by the people, held responsible for the schools, they are in practice deprived of the financial power to meet their responsibility.



Obsolete rural schoolhouse

The result is easily foreseen. The county commissioners are also a political body. Elected as they not infrequently are upon a platform of economy, and having, as is human, their own political future as well as that of their party in view, they often give scant attention to the requests of the county school boards for funds in excess of 15 cents on the \$100, quite regardless of the merits of the application. The records of every county in the state show how seldom the full requests of the school boards for funds are granted by the county commissioners. Here and there a school board, on easy terms with the commissioners, makes no formal request for funds; the subject is talked over informally and an agreement reached. Elsewhere, requests are cut year after year, even in the face of the fact that in some instances the schools are kept open by county boards by means of current loans. Where the commissioners and the majority of the school board happen to be of the same political faith, the school board members are at times asked to modify their requests on the grounds of party loyalty or political expediency. Even the county superintendents do not escape. Persons with powerful political connections have been known to appeal to them, to reclassify teachers, in order to lower their salaries, and thus reduce the amount of money needed by the County School Board. In one instance that came to our notice the teachers were actually reclassified; in another, occurring in the spring of 1915, be it said to the honor of the Superintendent, the intermediary was defied to do his

worst. To protect the schools against such dangers, five of the larger counties of the state have secured from the General Assembly special legislation rendering mandatory a higher levy by the board of county commissioners than that provided by the general law. Thus, Allegany may make a levy of 31 cents on \$100 for usual expenses, and an additional 7 cents for buildings; Baltimore County may levy 31 cents and 9 cents, respectively; while Montgomery County requires its county commissioners to meet any demand made by the school board for the support of the elementary schools. In Frederick and Prince George counties the school authorities secured local laws providing for larger teachers' salaries, and the county commissioners are required to levy the necessary funds.

The most serious difficulties are usually encountered when funds are requested for the erection of new school-houses. A few boards of county commissioners make such allowance, but only a few. It does not follow that the rest get no money at all for new buildings; they get it, however, in ways that are roundabout and inefficient. Two counties—Allegany and Baltimore—have procured from the legislature laws compelling the commissioners to make a separate levy for buildings. But in the majority of counties almost all the money spent on new buildings within the last half decade has been wrung from the county commissioners through special laws, requiring a levy or a bond issue. Indeed, some counties—for example, Calvert, Charles, and St. Mary's, have had to

appeal to the General Assembly to secure funds even for the erection of schoolhouses costing less than \$600.

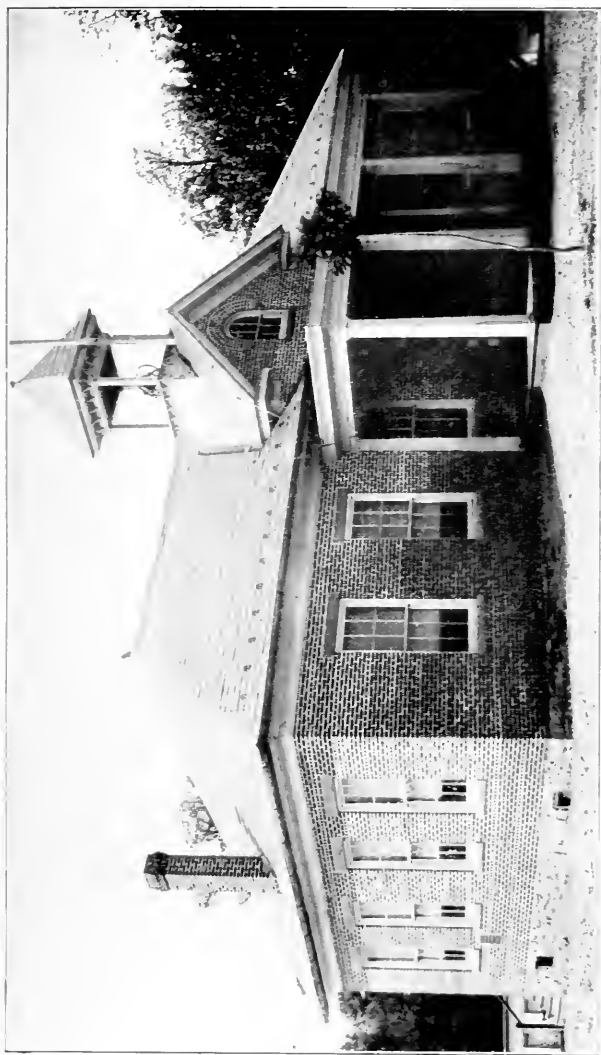
The methods used by the county commissioners in granting funds aid them to shirk their responsibility. The requests of the school boards are as a rule presented by items; definite sums are asked for new buildings, for maintenance, for teachers, etc. But the county commissioners, as a rule, make a lump allowance, less than the total sum asked for, and generally omit to state which items have been granted in full and which cut or refused altogether. This lump sum includes, ordinarily, enough for teachers' salaries and operating expenses; but for years in certain counties—Calvert and Charles, for instance—little has been provided even for repairs, to say nothing of the betterment of the plant, the commissioners trusting to the members of the County School Board to use their own ingenuity in keeping the schools open and some kind of roof over the heads of the children. To check this way of escaping responsibility, Montgomery County obtained special legislation which provides for a detailed school budget and compels the county commissioners to make their allowances by items.

Such funds as the school boards obtain are usually administered with somewhat more than ordinary efficiency. Engaged in business and in commercial farming, as the great majority of the members are, it is natural that they should take a close interest in the business aspects of education. The county unit facilitates the use of intelligent methods of accounting, and perhaps

explains the introduction of a uniform accounting system throughout the state. Bills are audited by the Board members, and accounts are kept by the County Superintendent, the assistant superintendent, or the clerk. In a few cases—Allegany County, for instance—these accounts are examined monthly by an outside accountant; usually, however, this outside audit is made once a year, as in Howard County; however, there are a few counties—Garrett is an example—where no audit at all is made by an outside agency.

More or less uniformity of method has also been developed in handling routine matters of school supplies, fuel, and repairs. In some counties a blank is employed by the district trustees to indicate to the County Board what repairs, etc., are deemed necessary. Elsewhere the County Board members make visits with the County Superintendent to decide what repairs are to be undertaken. Occasionally as much as a week is thus spent. On jobs of sufficient magnitude competitive bids are received. Work done under contract is supervised by the County Superintendent or his assistant; if a local man is employed he is more often subject to the direction of the district trustees. In our judgment these details are, as a rule, honestly and efficiently managed.

The building problem has been less happily handled. The situation is obviously not a simple one. Funds are limited; old buildings can neither be torn down nor reconstructed to keep pace with modern notions of construction, as to size of classrooms, lighting, cloak-



Consolidated three room school, built in 1913
Building substantial, but plan antiquated, class rooms lighted from all sides

rooms, heating arrangements, closets, etc. On the other hand, these difficulties make it all the more imperative that new buildings should be soundly planned and that repairs and remodelling should be carried on with up-to-date models in mind. The State Department should exercise a general control over building operations, as it does in Minnesota, for example. As a matter of fact, the state has no policy and only a few counties, Allegany, Baltimore, Wicomico, and Queen Anne's, among them, handle this problem with intelligence. As for the rest, schoolhouses of obsolete type are still constructed, just as though standard types, soundly planned in respect to light, hygiene, drainage, etc., had not been evolved and were not elsewhere in use. District School No. 3, recently built in the third school district of Calvert County, shows less appreciation of sound principles of school architecture than was shown in the erection of certain schoolhouses in the same county fifty years ago; the new consolidated schoolhouse at Clarksville, Howard County, ignores the principles of good lighting; city school buildings costing from \$12,000 to \$15,000 and disregarding modern ideas as to hygiene and sanitation have recently been erected at North East, Cecil County; at St. Michaels, Talbot County; at Accident, Garrett County, and at Federalsburg, Caroline County.

Highly objectionable is a practice, not altogether infrequent, by which both County Board and County Superintendent have been completely deprived of control in certain cases. Buildings were needed, for example,

at Hyattsville, Prince George County, and at Kennedyville, Kent County. The county commissioners refused the necessary funds. "Influential" citizens then appealed to the General Assembly which was thus induced to pass special legislation making mandatory upon the county commissioners the raising of the sum desired. In both the instances under discussion the acts named a local committee to have charge of the construction. Such legislation is absolutely pernicious. It encourages legislative favoritism and log-rolling, destroys local responsibility, discourages systematic planning by the county authorities, lodges control in inexperienced hands, and in the end produces an obsolete school building at great expense. For this reason the buildings erected at Hyattsville and Kennedyville are defective in respect to ventilating, lighting, and internal arrangement.

We have already mentioned the fact that the county school boards appoint district school trustees, who choose and may remove the principal teacher. Politically selected county boards are, of course, apt to choose the district trustees on a partisan basis. The way is thus open for the introduction of politics into the management of every school. As a rule, the district trustees do little. They do not meet to talk over school affairs with the teacher; they take no especial interest in the schoolhouse or the school grounds. They wake up, however, when a teacher is to be appointed or dismissed, but the danger is great that their action will not be based purely on educational considerations.

We have in a previous chapter discussed the relation of the State Board of Education to the State Superintendent; its counterpart is to be found in the relation of the County Board to the County Superintendent. The County Board is a small, lay, unpaid body, composed of farmers, business men, physicians, or lawyers, more or less interested in public education and more or less competent to look after it in a general way, but necessarily without professional knowledge or experience. Under these circumstances, while accepting from the state department their general policies, they look to the county superintendent for local leadership. Thus far, we have discussed mainly the composition of the county boards and the transaction of certain business matters—the raising of funds and the erection of buildings—as to all of which we conclude that Maryland derives less benefit than it should and might from its superior type of school administration. There remain to be considered the ways in which the county boards discharge their specifically educational responsibilities. This can, however, be most advantageously discussed in connection with the County Superintendent, to which subject the next chapter will be devoted.

V. THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

THE County Superintendent of Schools occupies in respect to the county schools the same position as the City Superintendent occupies in respect to the city schools. He is the expert adviser of the County School Board on all matters of educational policy; he supplies professional inspiration to the teaching staff of the county; he must be the organizer and leader of public opinion if increasing popular support and interest are to be won. In addition, as secretary-treasurer of the County Board he is its business representative and executive agent in financial and other matters.

What kind of person must the County Superintendent be if he is to fulfill these specifications? If the County Superintendent is to be the source of professional inspiration and popular leadership, he must be a trained educator, familiar with modern ideas as to curriculum, method, and supervision; he must be a man of weight in the community; he must command the respect of the County Board; and he must hold his office long enough to develop an educational program. Even so, it is clear that no one person can himself perform all the duties of the County Superintendent. The County Superintend-

ent must therefore have at least a minimum of clerical and professional assistance—a specialized “staff” of modest proportions.

Now, what are the facts? The county superintendents are elected by the politically constituted county boards. The politicians view the county superintendency as “spoils,” and in most counties the indifference of the people permits them to dispose of it on that basis. A general election, bringing about a change in party control, is scarcely over before political candidates are brought forth and “groomed” for this important office. In the four years during which the Republicans were in power—1896-1900—new county superintendents were chosen in 19 out of the 23 counties of the state, 11 of them in the very year when the county school boards became Republican. In the first year of the new Democratic administration of 1900, 16 new county superintendents were appointed, whereas during the ensuing 11 years, aside from removals by death, there was a total of only 11 changes. Similarly, the first three years of the present Republican control witnessed the election of 12 new superintendents. Some of these changes were indeed for the better; but as long as a political upset is the inciting cause, there can be no certainty that changes will insure to the public advantage. Luckily, these deplorable conditions are not universal. In a few—a very few—counties, politics, as we shall shortly see, play no part in either the selection or retention of the county superintendents. While a dozen superintendents have

served three years or less, three have been in office for fourteen years.

Though nothing can be said in extenuation of the county boards, in so far as their choice of the County Superintendent is influenced by political considerations, it must in fairness be added that highly desirable candidates would not be likely to covet the post in most counties under existing circumstances. The law makes no stipulations as to the professional qualifications or the salary of the incumbent. Of 23 county superintendents, one receives \$5,000 a year, one \$3,000, one \$2,250. Of the remaining 20, one receives \$800 a year, 6 receive from \$1,200 to \$1,500, and 13 from \$1,600 to \$2,000. In addition there is an allowance of from \$100 to \$500 for expenses incurred in visiting schools, though Garrett County makes no allowance, and Harford and St. Mary's only \$25. One cannot be surprised, therefore, to find that such positions have not attracted trained men. Indeed, three county superintendents have had less than a high school education and four of them never went beyond the high school. Only one of the seven has added to his initial preparation, and he only to the extent of six weeks at a summer school. Of those remaining, one is a normal school graduate with a summer term of professional work. Though fifteen hold college and university degrees, yet not more than six of the fifteen have made special and professional preparation for their work.

Conditions are aggravated by the almost universal lack of competent assistants. The law, while permitting

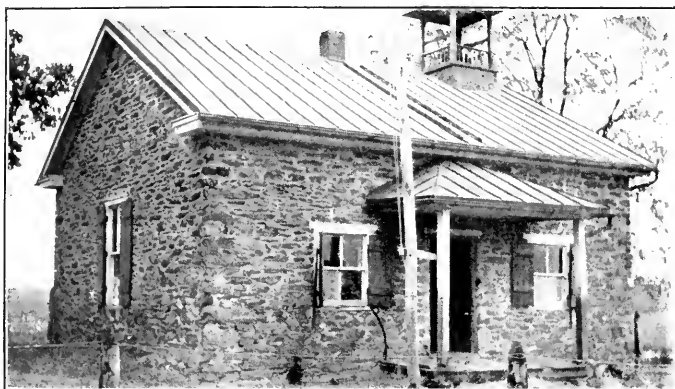
the county boards to expend thousands annually in their discretion, forbids the employment of even a clerk to assist the Superintendent, unless the number of teachers in the county exceeds 85; an assistant superintendent may not be employed unless the number of teachers exceeds 175. Hence, five counties depend almost entirely upon the County Superintendent alone, employing only occasional and temporary clerical assistance. Six out of the twenty-three have assistant superintendents, and supervisors are found in four. In only three counties—Baltimore, Frederick, and Allegany—are the offices ample and well-equipped; elsewhere space is often meagre and equipment usually limited. One-fourth of the county superintendents have but one room, often a small one at that, which serves alike as a store-house for school supplies, as meeting-place for the County Board, and as general office.

Let us now see what happens. The County Superintendent is, in the first place, the custodian of the records of the County Board. He conducts the correspondence with district trustees, teachers, patrons, and the general public. He arranges the business to be considered at the regular monthly or special meetings and keeps minutes of the proceedings. He collects such statistics from the schools as are required, answers all inquiries for information, and prepares the annual report submitted to the State Department of Education. As treasurer he has charge of funds varying from \$28,000 annually in the smallest to \$660,000 in the largest county. He receives,

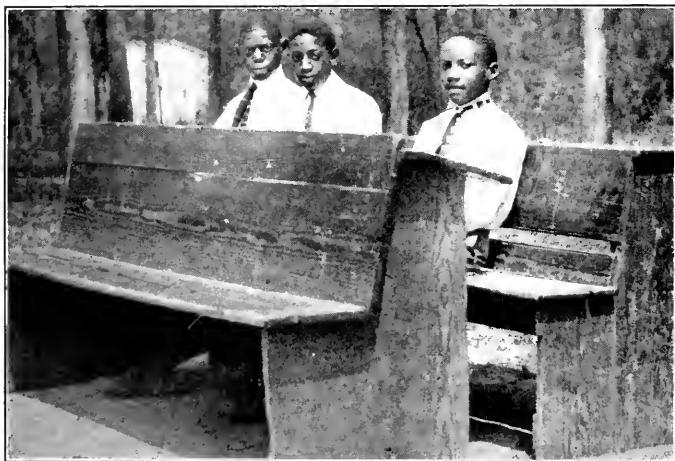
and when audited by the Board members pays, all bills; keeps all accounts; purchases, collects, and distributes textbooks and educational material, and prepares the annual budget to be presented to the county commissioners.

For lack of assistance and of facilities, clerical work is too often poorly performed. In seven or eight counties at most—Baltimore, Allegany, Frederick, Harford, Washington, Wicomico, Talbot, and Queen Anne's—order prevails. In half a dozen more the work is fairly well done. Elsewhere there is a total lack of system. Teachers' examination records are indeed preserved, but they are inaccessible; school reports are merely bundled together and filed, little use being made of them, and data are almost never collected as to why children do not receive promotion or why they attend school irregularly. The financial accounts, however, be it said, while frequently handled in an unbusinesslike manner, are nevertheless carefully and accurately kept.

The more purely educational duties begin with maintenance of the school plant. In the smallest county of the state—Calvert—the County Superintendent must supervise 54 buildings, scattered over 216 miles of territory, and in the largest (Baltimore) 181, scattered over an area of 650 square miles. District trustees, being the immediate custodians of their respective school-houses, may spend on their own authority upon upkeep and repairs \$5 in any one term; larger expenditures can be made only after authorization by the County Board. Hence, anything costing more than five dollars—whether



Substantial, but unsanitary and unhygienic rural school— one of many



Ancient desks still in use

a new fence, the grading of the school grounds, the repair of an outhouse, the roofing or painting of the schoolhouse, a new stove or new furniture, is referred to the County School Board, and the duty of attending to such matters devolves upon the County Superintendent, who investigates and reports upon the need, makes the necessary purchases, and supervises work done under contract. If a new building is to be erected the County Superintendent bears the burden of acquiring the ground, drawing the plan, letting the contract, and looking after the construction and equipment.

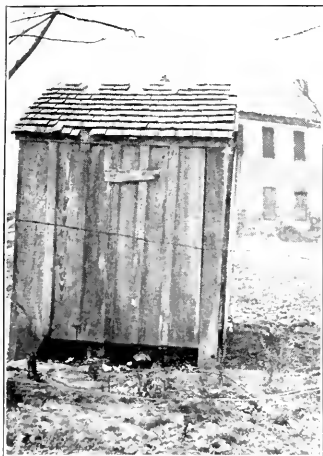
Here, then, is a second field of operations, much more technical in character, and sufficiently extensive to consume almost all the County Superintendent's time and energy. With what results? It was stated in the preceding chapter that neither the state nor the county pursued or could, with its present staff, pursue a definite and intelligent policy in regard to new school buildings. With respect to sanitation and hygiene there is not lacking evidence that recent agitation has had a beneficial effect. School grounds have here and there been cleared of underbrush, outhouses have been cleaned and whitewashed, and old buildings have been repaired, painted, and redecorated. Nevertheless, it remains true that a thoroughly decent and comfortable rural school plant, consisting of a neat school building, a clean yard, and sanitary outhouses is exceptional. There are in the state 1,935 school buildings for white children, 550 for colored. In the course of this investigation 500 of the

former were visited, 50 of the latter. Perhaps 8 per cent. of those visited may be called satisfactory.

The duties thus far considered—those of the Secretary and Treasurer of the County Board and those of the custodian of the school plant, consume at least three-fourths of the time of the majority of the county superintendents and not less than half of the time of the others. Moreover, if the school plant is to be kept in proper order, this drain will increase rather than diminish. In the smaller counties relief can be furnished by providing clerical assistance in the office and a reliable, all-round mechanic for the field. The larger counties might well follow the example of the cities, that is, employ a secretary-treasurer to care for the clerical work and the accounts of the Board, a business manager to look after the physical side of the schools, and a Superintendent, directly responsible for the secretary-treasurer and the business manager, yet free to devote his major energies to the educational conduct of the system.

Important as are good records and neat schoolhouses, the really significant duties of the County Superintendent are educational. One-half the teachers in the rural schools enter the service by way of the county examinations which he conducts. Do these examinations select the best talent available? Do they direct the candidate's attention in the right direction?

How could they? How can an untrained County Superintendent examine sensibly and judiciously the candidates for teaching positions? How can an un-



Unsanitary, unhygienic, and neglected outhouses

trained County Superintendent indicate by the character of the examination the line of preparation which prospective teachers should follow? The situation, be it granted, is not easy. Salaries are low—ranging from an average of \$271 a year in St. Mary's to \$662 a year in Baltimore County. Three counties pay an average of less than \$300; four less than \$350; seven less than \$400; seven less than \$450; and only two, Allegany and Baltimore, pay in excess of \$450. In counties with few or poor high schools the probable candidates will be the abler boys and girls who have lingered an extra year in the grades or in the rural schools; high school graduates will be applicants only in counties well supplied with secondary school facilities. But these inherent difficulties make it all the more important that the County Superintendent should be able, by reason of his training and experience, to make the best of a bad situation. The untrained official does not and cannot do this.

He fails also, and for the same reason, to use such opportunities as he possesses for the improvement of his teaching corps. Teacher certificates issued by the County Superintendent on the basis of the examinations just discussed are, in the first instance, probationary, good for only six months. At the end of this period the County Superintendent may cancel the certificate, require another examination, or issue, in lieu of the probationary certificate, one valid for five years. The discretion of the County Superintendent in respect to the re-examination of teachers thus gives him the power to in-

sist upon further professional preparation. He possesses also an even more potent instrument. The minimum salary law of 1910 guaranteed to teachers ranked by the County Superintendent as first class a higher minimum wage than was provided for other teachers. Thus a positive financial inducement was offered to all teachers to improve themselves. Wherever county superintendents have dared to use their legitimate authority the effect has been excellent. The enrolment in the Maryland Teachers' Reading Circle has increased, the Teachers' Institute and Teachers' Meetings have been taken more seriously, and teachers in larger numbers have at their own expense attended the summer session of normal schools and colleges.

Unfortunately, however, very few county superintendents have acted. The holder of the probationary certificate is seldom dropped and only occasionally re-examined. The salary bonus is also usually wasted. Partly because of the lack of professional ideals, partly because of the generally low salary scale, superintendents commonly award the salary increase to teachers of long service and local favor instead of using it as a lever to lift the profession. On the whole, therefore, it is fair to say that the County Superintendent usually leaves the teaching profession just about where he finds it.

The teacher is the first—and the most important—factor in securing good teaching. The second is supervision. The teachers of a school or of a school system are molded into an efficient team animated by one purpose

and working toward a common end very largely by the pressure, guidance, and inspiration of the supervisors. It is one of the advantages of large cities that supervision is easily provided; it is among the most serious flaws in the district system that supervision is well-nigh impossible. Maryland's county educational organization facilitates effective supervision, embracing town and country schools alike. For the area is large, the schools varied in type, the financial resources more or less substantial, and the authority of the County Board unquestioned. But even a trained Superintendent cannot, in addition to his other duties, take upon himself, except in the very smallest counties, the details of classroom supervision. He requires for this purpose a small but highly specialized staff.

Once more, the possibilities of the situation are in this matter almost entirely unrealized. Supervisors, including assistant superintendents, are employed in only 7 of the 23 counties¹; and of the assistant superintendents, two, perhaps one might say three, are engaged in clerical work. To be sure, in addition to these 7 counties, one county uses a portion of the state appropriation for Colored Industrial Schools to employ a part-time supervisor² and another is making a limited use of high school teachers³ for the same purpose. In short, the teachers

¹Allegany, Baltimore, Caroline, Dorchester, Frederick, Montgomery, and Prince George.

²Anne Arundel.

³Queen Anne.

of 16 out of the 23 counties receive no supervisory assistance other than that given by the County Superintendent, and but three counties, Allegany, Baltimore, and Frederick have anything like an adequate supervisory force. The failure to provide adequate supervision is attributed by the county boards to the lack of funds. Too true. But lack of funds is not fundamental. At bottom lack of supervision is due in most counties, not so much to financial inability, as to a lack of appreciation of the significance of efficient supervision on the part of the Board and of the Superintendent who has failed to lead the Board.

Of the three counties above mentioned Baltimore County must be singled out for especial commendation. The County Superintendent is a man of experience and modern training; and he is aided by a corps of supervisors, including an assistant superintendent, a primary supervisor with an assistant, a grammar grade supervisor with an assistant, a manual training supervisor, a domestic science supervisor, and, finally, a supervisor of rural schools. Working as a team, they have not only improved the schools, they have also developed a public sentiment which demands increasingly better schools, better instruction, better trained and better paid teachers. The teaching body of the county is permeated by genuine enthusiasm. Every improvement effected makes itself felt practically throughout the county. The situation is, of course, still far from homogeneous, but it is developing steadily in the right direction. What Balti-

more County has accomplished cannot be literally duplicated in counties with more limited resources. But every county in Maryland could, up to the limits of its financial ability, do the *kind* of thing that Baltimore County does. At bottom it depends on the competency of the County Superintendent.

In counties without supervisors, whatever there is of personal supervision depends upon the county superintendents who are required by law to visit the schools. But the number of reported visits is no index to the amount of effective supervision performed. These visits are usually brief and of a business or inspectorial character. The Superintendent calls to look after the physical plant or to classify a teacher on the basis of a hasty inspection. This is not "supervision" in the sense which the term bears in these pages.

The County Superintendent also comes into touch with the teaching force at the teachers' meetings and conferences held throughout the state at least quarterly. Here again one notices the difference between counties lacking and counties possessing proper supervision. In the former the occasion is apt to be devoted to generalities—to the discussion of plans or to exhortations on general lines. In the supervised counties the conferences between Superintendent, supervisory staff, and teaching body are of an intensive character. Definite problems are formulated and presented. A lesson actually given by way of illustrating the use of materials and methods of presentation is made the basis of dis-

cussion. Or the teachers are divided into groups according as they teach in rural or urban schools, in the lower or in the upper grades, and attention is centred upon questions of interest to particular groups. With one group it may be discipline, with another how to teach beginners reading, and with still another what arithmetic should be taught. The County Superintendent can thus employ the strong teachers to strengthen the weak. The entire body is in this way professionalized. But, obviously, such organization and endeavor presuppose a trained leader and a trained staff.

In still another important respect is the County Superintendent charged with direct responsibility for the work of the classroom. He is required by law to prepare semi-annual examination questions for all the schools of the county, the second, or June examination, serving as the basis of promotion. Now examinations may serve several purposes: they may, for instance, ascertain what children know and how freely they can use their knowledge; but their main function is to guide the teacher; for by the examinations he sets, the County Superintendent tells the teacher the kind of instruction she should give, the things she should emphasize, and the habits of thought and action in which children should be trained.

As one would expect from our account of the qualifications and resources of the county superintendents, the current examinations belong in most counties to an obsolete type. By demanding from children isolated and unrelated facts and meaningless definitions, they do in-



More outhouses

calculable harm to instruction. As the child's failure or promotion depends upon them, even teachers capable of something better are forced to defer to them. They must, therefore, rush their pupils in the most superficial manner over the assignment for the year, in order to have three and even four months free for the reviews necessary for the June examination. It is indeed not uncommon for teachers to give children the task of finding the answers to sets of examination questions running back for years and to have them write out these answers and commit them to memory, as an effective preparation for the coming tests!

A single topic remains to be briefly considered before this chapter can be brought to a close. The law requires the preparation and publication annually of a county school report, exhibiting the financial transactions of the Board and containing data bearing on enrolment, attendance, etc. The county report might be an attractive document, serving as a means of communication between the Board and the community. It might depict conditions, record progress, explain policy, and stimulate interest. It does, as a rule, nothing of the sort. The county reports are usually in Maryland—as elsewhere—dull pamphlets throwing little light on educational problems.

In the course of our description and criticism of the County Superintendent the needs of the situation have been clearly implied. Effective schools require skilled and specialized leadership. Maryland must define in the

statute the qualifications of the County Superintendent. It must go into the open market to get him. Having found him, the county must give him a decent salary, assured tenure, and at least a minimum of clerical and professional help.

VI. THE TEACHERS

BOARDS, whether state or county, superintendents and supervisors, all have their part to play in education; but they strive to little purpose, except through well-trained and carefully selected teachers. Disregarding, for the moment, the influence of adequate supervision, the efficiency of the schools depends upon the preparation of the teachers and upon the intelligence with which teachers are chosen. There are reasons for exercising unusual watchfulness in Maryland, for the law guarantees what is tantamount to unlimited tenure. Once appointed, removal is in practice rare.

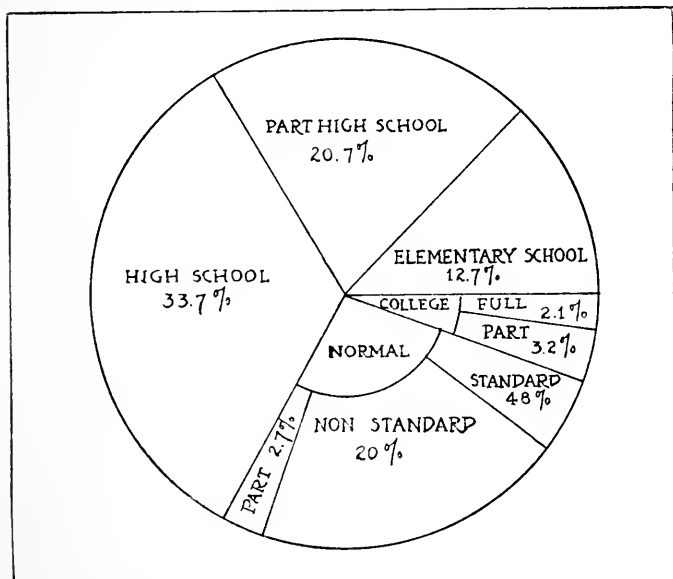
What safeguards may an American state wisely set up in respect to the training and selection of its teaching body? The problem is by no means a simple one. The public school system consists of schools of many types—urban elementary schools, rural elementary schools, industrial schools, and high schools. One sort of teacher is needed for the graded city school; a modified type is needed for the ungraded rural school. The teacher of high school Latin needs a different equipment from the teacher of high school physics; the teacher of high school physics needs a different preparation from that of the teacher of industrial art or domestic science in elementary

or high schools. Differentiation of function thus requires within limits specialization in training. We say advisedly "within limits," for all teachers of a given rank ought to base their professional training on a certain common educational background or experience. All teachers in the elementary schools, city or country, should possess something like a high school education followed by normal school training; all high school teachers—certainly in the usual branches, should possess a higher education. Otherwise, the teaching force will be little above the level to which it hopes to elevate the pupils! Exceptions do indeed occur. There are some good teachers who have received little training and some poor teachers who have received much. But public school systems that turn the exception into the rule make precisely the showing that, as we shall now see, is made by Maryland.

There are in Maryland, exclusive of Baltimore, 3,467 white and 672 colored teachers. Accurate information was obtained as to the professional training of 3,338 white teachers (96 per cent. of the whole) and 505 colored teachers (75 per cent. of the whole) both before and after they entered the profession. Regarding the training of these teachers, no general statement can be made at all. There are the widest possible variations in the training of teachers doing the same grade of work—inconceivable confusion and lack of sequence and order in their preparation. For example, some teachers had entered the normal schools after high school graduation, as they should; but some of them had entered from the first, second,

or third high school year, and not a few went straight from the elementary schools. Some went from the elementary schools to college in order to study "education"; others spent a year or two in a normal school and then

FIG. 1
PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS (WHITE)



entered college; still others reversed this last-mentioned process! There is no rhyme or reason in what has been taking place. Of over 3,000 white elementary teachers in the state outside of Baltimore (Fig. 1) 391 (12.7 per cent.) have had only an elementary school education; 634 (20.7 per cent.) have spent one or two years in a high

school; 1,031 (33.7 per cent.) have completed a four-year high school course; only 148—less than 5 per cent. of the whole—have received a standard normal school training. Of the rest, some have spent a little while in normal school; some have received an irregular normal schooling; a few have been to college and still fewer through college.¹ Grouping together standard normal school, part college, and college graduates, about 10 per cent. of the elementary teachers of Maryland—not more—may be called well trained; not quite one-third could on a stretch be called fairly well trained; at least one-third are practically untrained. The body as a whole is thus heterogeneous to the last degree.² How could it possibly function as a unit in carrying out a well-conceived educational policy, even if there were one?³

¹I. e., have had a regular high school education or its equivalent followed by a college course.

²To say nothing of classes prior to 1910, of the last six graduating classes of the Maryland State Normal Schools, less than 40 per cent. entered from standard high schools.

³In the following table the figures are grouped:

TABLE I
PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS (WHITE)

Kind of Preparation	Number	Per cent.	Cumulative Per cent.
Elementary School	391	12.7	12.7
Part High School	634	20.7	33.4
Standard High School	1,031	33.7	67.1
Part Normal Course	82	2.7	69.8
Non-standard Normal Course	614	20.	89.8
Standard Normal Course	148	4.8	94.6
Part College	98	3.2	97.8
College	65	2.1	99.9
Grand Total	3,063	99.9

The colored elementary teachers, including the supervisors, make a better showing than might have been anticipated. (Fig. 2.) Eight per cent. appear to have received a standard normal training. In view of the fact that there is not a single colored high school in the state outside of the city of Baltimore and the local facilities for training colored teachers are extremely meagre, this is a surprising fact.¹ To some extent it may be accounted for on the ground that, while the returns for the white teachers are practically complete, reports were received from only three-fourths of the colored teachers. This was not due to negligence on the part of the county superintendents, but to the fact that many colored schools had closed for the year before the blanks calling for data on teacher preparation were received, making it impossible to secure the requested information. Complete returns from the colored teachers would probably lessen the per cent. of those adequately trained.

¹The exact figures are as follows:

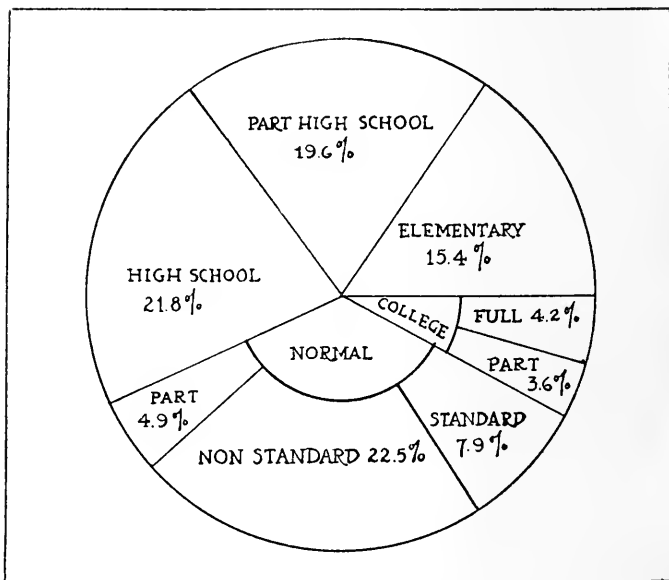
TABLE II
PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY AND SPECIAL TEACHERS (COLORED)

Kind of Preparation	Number	Per cent.	Cumulative Per cent.
Elementary School	78	15.4	15.4
Part High School	99	19.6	35.
Standard High School	110	21.8	56.8
Part Normal Course	25	4.9	61.7
Non-standard Normal Course	114	22.5	84.2
Standard Normal Course	40	7.9	92.1
Part College	18	3.6	95.7
College	21	4.2	99.9
Grand Total	505	99.9

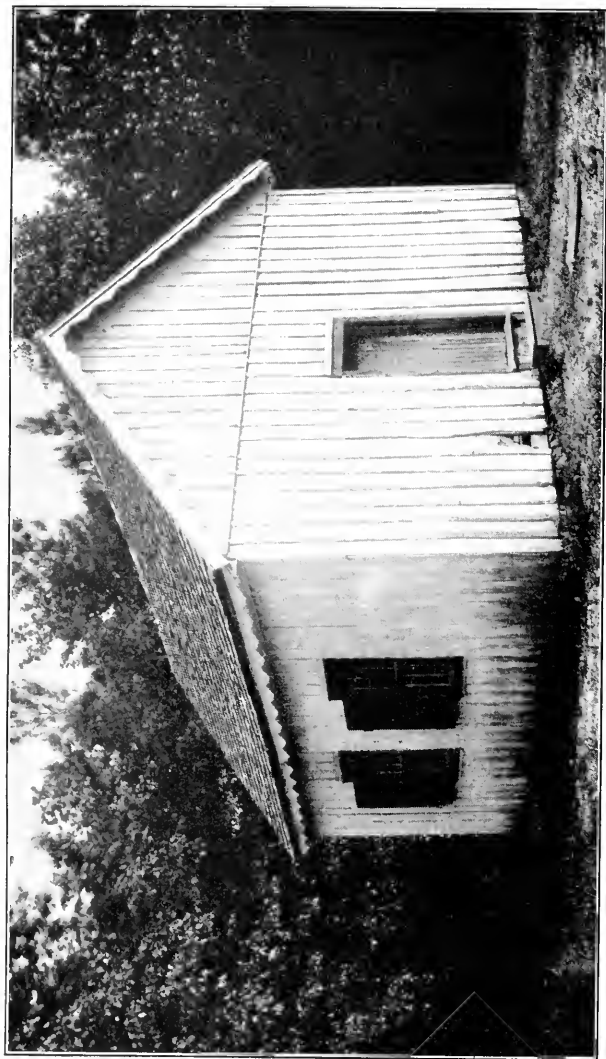
The teachers in the high schools are of two kinds: regular teachers, (i. e., those handling the older studies) and special teachers (i. e., those working in manual training, domestic science, agriculture, and the commer-

FIG. 2

PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY AND SPECIAL TEACHERS (COLORED)



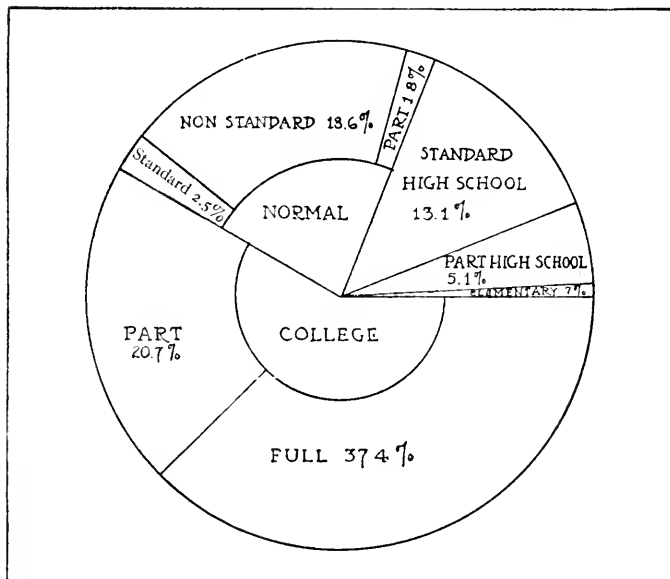
cial branches). It has been stated above that high school teachers ought to be college graduates who have also had a certain amount of professional training. But it would be unfair to apply this standard to Maryland—or to most other states, for the high school movement is so recent and has developed so rapidly that professionally,



Another rural school of obsolete type, one of hundreds in existence

trained teachers have been unobtainable. Separate professional training may therefore be ignored. Nevertheless, despite this concession, Maryland makes an unsatisfactory showing. (Fig. 3.) Not exceeding two-fifths

FIG. 3
PREPARATION OF REGULAR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS



of the regular high school teachers of the state may be described as adequately prepared; a second two-fifths are from one to four years short, though they have had some kind of training—a partial college or normal school course, for example; the remaining fifth are woefully lacking in

proper preparation, being made up of those who have had only a high school education, a part of a normal course, or some similarly inadequate and ill-adjusted preparation.¹

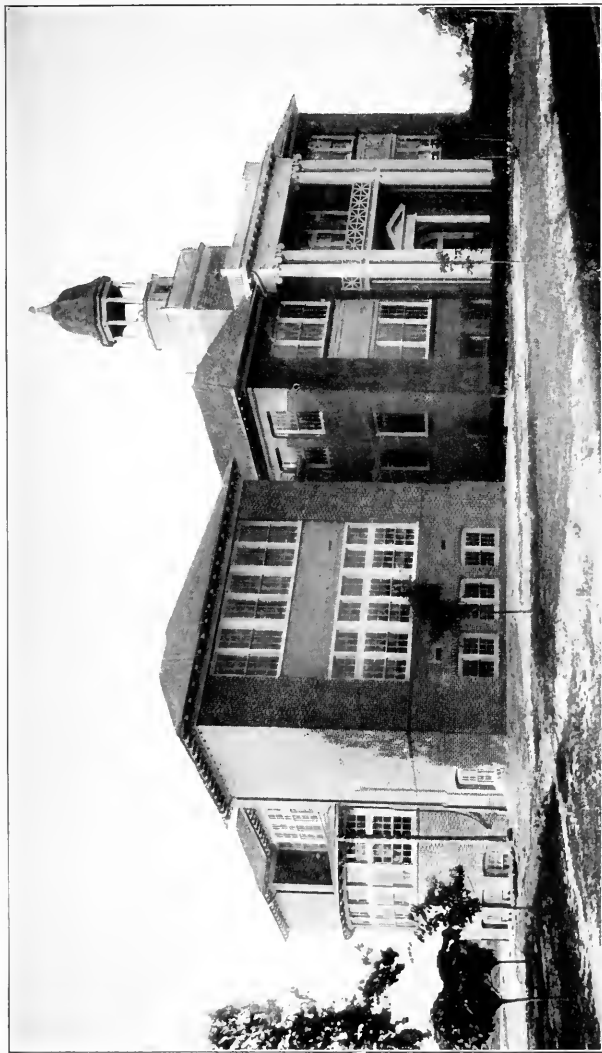
In reference to teachers of special high school branches—manual training, domestic science, agriculture, and commercial subjects, it was not possible to ascertain what specialized training teachers had had. We were compelled, therefore, to limit our inquiry to their general rather than their particular fitness. On this basis² less

¹TABLE III
PREPARATION OF REGULAR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Kind of Preparation	Number	Per cent.	Cumulative Per cent.
Elementary School	2	.7	.7
Part High School	14	5.1	5.8
Standard High School	36	13.1	18.9
Part Normal Course	5	1.8	20.7
Non-standard Normal Course	51	18.6	39.3
Standard Normal Course	7	2.5	41.8
Part College	57	20.7	62.5
College	103	37.4	99.9
Grand Total	275	99.9

²TABLE IV
PREPARATION OF SPECIAL HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Kind of Preparation	Manual Training		Com-mercial		Domestic Science		Agricul-ture		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Elementary School	1	2.9	1	2.9	2	1.9
Part High School	3	8.8	3	8.8	3	9.1	9	8.5
Standard High School	8	23.5	8	23.5	11	33.3	27	25.5
Part Normal Course	2	5.9	12	35.3	1	3.	15	14.1
Non-standard Normal Course	7	20.6	1	2.9	1	3.	9	8.5
Standard Normal Course	4	11.7	1	2.9	2	6.1	7	6.6
Part College	8	23.5	6	17.7	10	30.3	4	80	28	26.4
College	1	2.9	2	5.9	5	15.1	1	20	9	8.5
Grand Total	34	99.8	34	99.9	33	99.9	5	100	106	100



Old high school with modern addition. Fireproof, and classrooms lighted from one side

than 10 per cent. of the special high school teachers now in service are well trained. Forty per cent. have had a normal school or a part college course, but a fourth have never gone beyond the high school itself. To be sure, these high school graduates have had in most cases the special high school course in manual training or domestic science, or the commercial branches, but such instruction hardly gives them the broad outlook upon life and industry which is essential to efficient work in their chosen fields.

A fair degree of uniformity in the teaching body can be obtained only if admission thereto is controlled by a central agency. Maryland, instead of a single portal, has almost half a dozen: the county examination, normal school diplomas, college certificates, and other evidences of training. No one authority passes upon these diverse credentials. In consequence, there is no common standard and no way of enforcing a common standard, if one were formulated.

As has been intimated in the preceding chapter, the teachers' examinations conducted by county superintendents form the most objectionable feature of the existing situation. We have called attention to the fact that untrained superintendents cannot conduct judicious examinations. As a matter of fact, under the existing law, neither can highly trained county superintendents. For the subjects of the examinations are regulated by statutes that make a sensible examination practically impossible.

These statutes go back to the period between 1866 and 1872, when the conception of a free public school system was just beginning to be formed. The pioneers in this field were men of vision who planned a program of instruction unrealized even at the present time. Their ambitious ideas were embodied in the law of 1872, which prescribed that there "shall be taught in every district school, orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, history of the United States, good behavior, algebra, bookkeeping, natural philosophy, the Constitution of the United States, the Constitution of the State of Maryland, the history of Maryland, vocal music, drawing, physiology, the laws of health, and domestic economy." It was also provided that, in communities having a considerable German population, the German language might also be introduced. Nor was this pretentious program distributed between elementary and high schools; on the contrary, it was part of the dream that all branches should be taught in every district school.

Teachers were to be selected on the basis of their fitness to carry out this ambitious scheme. To be sure, two grades of certificates were recognized. The second or lower grade—regarded as a makeshift then, though to-day, half a century later, it is still the prevailing certificate—called for an examination in spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, and history only; the first-grade certificate involved an examination in all the studies mentioned in the law, except

physiology, vocal music, drawing, laws of health, and domestic economy. There was thus a close correspondence between the visionary course of study meant for every district school and the examination required for a first-grade certificate.

Despite the vision, however, the actual instruction in the one-room rural and village schools was practically limited to the so-called three R's, English grammar, geography, and history. Branches like bookkeeping, algebra, and natural philosophy were attempted as a rule only in the academies and in the high schools of the larger towns, and the number of pupils taking them was small. For example, as late as 1900 Howard County reported only 134 pupils in all the schools of the county above the sixth grade; of these 68 were in bookkeeping, 123 in algebra, and 56 in natural philosophy. But the academies and high schools did not confine themselves to the studies prescribed in the law. Latin and higher mathematics including geometry, trigonometry, and surveying formed the backbone of their instruction; a little English literature and a smattering of the more exact sciences such as astronomy were also taught.

Prospective teachers had therefore under the law to be trained to teach a course of study which as a matter of fact had no existence in either elementary or high schools. Hence examination based on the statutory requirement did not test the qualifications of teachers to give instruction in the subjects actually taught. Those who strove to obtain the first-grade certificate as a basis of teaching

in elementary schools were compelled to equip themselves in algebra, natural philosophy, and the like, but not in such elementary school branches as physiology, the laws of health, vocal music, drawing, and domestic economy. Those who strove to obtain a first-grade certificate in order to teach in the high school were even more remote from their needs, for they took no examination in Latin, higher mathematics, English literature, general history, or in any of the sciences other than natural philosophy. In a word, the examination for the standard certificate of the day was a poor basis for selecting teachers for the elementary schools and of little or no worth in the selection of high school teachers. Incredible as it may seem, these defects, dating back to the year 1872, persist to this very day. Indeed, despite the differentiation made in recent years between elementary schools and high schools, the examination system of 1872 lasted up to 1904 without a single statutory change.

At that time, without cutting anything out, there were added to the examination subjects for the second-grade certificate the history of Maryland, the State and National Constitution, physiology, algebra to quadratics, the theory and practice of teaching, and the laws and the by-laws of the public schools. Young women who teach in the elementary rural schools are thus examined in algebra, which they do not teach, but not in drawing or agriculture which they are expected to teach. Meanwhile, candidates for the first-grade certificate are tested in bookkeeping, algebra, and natural philosophy, subjects

long since dropped from the elementary schools, and in general history and plane geometry which are distinctly high school studies, while they go entirely unexamined in important elementary branches. Equally disastrous is the effect of this arrangement on the high school. For as the first-grade certificate qualifies for a high school post, instruction may be given in Latin, higher mathematics, English literature, or science by a person holding a teaching license issued absolutely without reference to them.

No serious effort has yet been made to get rid of the absurdities which we have just pointed out. The state has limited its endeavors to encouraging improvement in ways that, helpful though they be, do not strike at the root of the problem. A succession of laws beginning in 1867 has aimed to encourage and develop the county institute; in 1914 counties were authorized, in lieu of holding the annual institute, to require not less than a fourth of their teachers to attend a summer school; and in the same year, the payment of higher salaries to teachers of superior training or ability was also authorized. Such provisions are wise enough in their way for they tend to improve the existing teaching corps. But much more radical measures must be taken.

At the outset a clear division must be made between certificates valid in the elementary school and those valid in the high school. On the side of the elementary school an examination should be devised which will test the fitness not in some, but in all, the branches included in the elementary course of study. On the side of the

high school there will need to be such a grouping of the principal academic studies that no teacher will be permitted to teach a branch unless she has first proven her fitness. In order that uniformity of standard may be secured, these examinations should be conducted by the state department, acting through the County Superintendent. From an eligible list thus formed, teachers should be appointed by the County Superintendent—no longer as now by the county boards and the district trustees.

In bringing about this reorganization an important factor will be the normal schools of the state, to the consideration of which we now turn.

Maryland supports two establishments for the training of white elementary school teachers—the Normal School at Frostburg and the new Normal School at Towson.

The Frostburg School, established in 1897, remains without any clear function in the state school system. Provision for it has always been grudging. The present plant comprises a modest building capable of accommodating about 175 students with additional quarters for a small practice school. The equipment is poor and altogether inadequate for instruction in nature study, physics, chemistry, manual training, domestic science, and the fine arts. The total amount provided annually by the state for all expenses from 1902 to 1914 was \$7,000; in 1914 the sum was raised to \$10,000. Accordingly, the salaries of the instructors scarcely exceed those in the neighboring high schools, and are in any case too meagre

to procure a qualified staff. Nevertheless, the school has grown rapidly, having in 1914 an enrolment of 102 preparatory and 61 normal students, a total of 163, mostly drawn from Allegany County. Including the class of 1914, 156 students have completed the course, of whom 131 are now engaged in teaching.

The institution destined to be made the central normal school is the Baltimore Normal, established in 1865. The building occupied from the early 70's until the present autumn was for years one of the best of its kind in the country, and even at the time of its abandonment was not altogether unadapted to its purposes. While thus fairly well housed the funds for its support have never been adequate. Prior to 1914 the regular annual appropriation did not exceed \$20,000, and it is now only \$50,000.

For almost forty years the Baltimore Normal was the only school for the training of teachers supported and controlled by the state. Its graduates, representing all sections and numbering more than 2,500, are to be found in important positions both within and without the schools. The school has, however, operated on so inadequate an allowance that at best it has accomplished only a part of what it might have accomplished. Its leadership has at times been distinctly inadequate; not infrequently, lacking funds to employ trained and experienced teachers, the school has appointed to its staff its own recent graduates. Inbreeding has thus gone on with its usual bad effects.

Our interest is, however, with the future, not with the

past, of the Baltimore Normal School. The school has just occupied its new quarters at Towson, with dormitory accommodations for two hundred students, classrooms, laboratory, library, and gymnasium facilities for six or seven hundred, and ample quarters for an adequate practice school. If the state is to derive full returns from the enormous sum now invested in its plant and equipment, a thoroughgoing reorganization is needed.

We make this suggestion in no spirit of fault-finding with those who have hitherto had to conduct the school on a quite insufficient allowance. It may well be that no one could have done better under the circumstances. But the new plant totally changes conditions. Its facilities are perhaps not surpassed anywhere; and an adequate budget will doubtless be provided. Under these circumstances the head of the school ought to be the most competent that the country affords; and the entire country should be searched in order to find him. Politics, personal interest, and local pride must be eliminated, for upon this selection depends in great part the progress of the public schools of the entire state. In the same way such men and women should be selected as teachers, in charge of the different departments, as will not only be able to develop strong courses of instruction within the school, but also to exert an influence throughout the state. For there is need not only of capable instructors, but of organizers who can work with the teachers in the field, inspiring and directing them in their daily work.

The activities of the old school stopped with the close

of the school year in June. The work of a progressive school that would fully occupy its field, and especially a normal school, is never done. Indeed, the summer season offers a great opportunity to the Baltimore Normal, if it is to rise to the new and larger service before it. Over 75 per cent. of the elementary teachers outside of the city of Baltimore, when judged most liberally, have had less than a standard professional preparation; to add to the initial equipment of these ill-prepared teachers should become one of the primary objects of the institution. To this end there should be a summer session, and the work of the summer session should equal in strength and attractiveness that of the regular school year.

Again, the entrance standards of the old school have always been low. For years young people taken from the highest grade of the elementary school were graduated in three years; only since 1904 has the course run four years, divided equally between preparatory and professional work. By resolution of the State Board of Education the admission requirements for 1915 were fixed at the completion of the second year of high school, but no steps were taken to readjust the old two-year preparatory course.

While more high school graduates entered in the fall of 1915 than ever before, a great part of the work of the school is still confined, as it always has been, to preparatory students. Surely the time is now at hand when the school should cease to build its professional work upon an

abbreviated high school course. This does not imply that the present work below the professional course should be summarily abandoned. There are, and for some time there will continue to be, sections without high schools in easy reach of ambitious young people. To accommodate students thus located who desire to become teachers the high school course at the Baltimore Normal should be maintained; but it should be lengthened to full four years, and so strengthened that it will become one of the strongest in the state, instead of being a mere subterfuge and makeshift.

It has been urged that the present is an appropriate time to broaden the activities of the Baltimore Normal so as to include the preparation of secondary teachers. Even if the state were not pledged to another policy, it is our opinion that this central school should confine its attention solely to the training of elementary teachers. The number of secondary teachers needed annually is too small for the state to undertake to develop, in competition with colleges already in the field, strong courses for regular high school teachers. There are, however, two kinds of high school teacher—viz., teachers of domestic science and of manual training—for the training of whom no other schools in Maryland are at all equipped, and with these the Normal might wisely deal. The suggestion that it should also train supervisors is, in our judgment, without value. The number of new supervisors annually needed is inconsiderable. To provide proper facilities could only be done at excessive cost.

The state should indeed maintain a high standard in appointing supervisors, but it should expect supervisors to resort to special institutions for supplementary training.

The Towson plant was created on the theory that the training of all the elementary teachers for the white schools might be there concentrated. In 1914 the total enrolment of both the Baltimore and the Frostburg schools was 224; there were 101 graduates. To supply all the new elementary teachers needed in the state an enrolment of more than 600 and yearly graduates in excess of 300 are required, or an increase in enrolment and graduates of more than 200 per cent. It is necessary, therefore, to attract students in larger numbers and to hold them until they complete the course. But a difficulty arises.

Two-thirds of the teachers of Maryland work in villages and the open country; 40 per cent. of them have one-room schools. Will the graduates of this stately normal school be willing to teach in rural schools? Will the practice school at Towson reproduce even approximately the conditions which most of its graduates may have to meet? How can courses and practice opportunities be adjusted to rural needs? American experience is not wholly encouraging in this matter. Central normal schools do not readily represent the rural point of view; and teachers trained in them prefer town and city posts. For this reason many states are endeavoring to train teachers for the rural elementary schools in connection with county high schools; and the legislature of Maryland passed in 1914 a permissive law looking to this end.

For the moment, however, it will probably be wisest to take no steps in this direction until the Towson school has had a fair chance to grapple with the problem.¹

There are now 672 colored teachers in the schools outside of the city of Baltimore. To encourage their further preparation—less than 40 per cent. of whom can be credited with anything like a satisfactory training—and to prepare approximately 75 new colored teachers required annually, the state maintains a single institution, the Maryland Normal and Industrial School at Bowie, opened under the auspices of the State Board of Education, September, 1911.

The equipment comprises a farm of 187 acres, an ordinary eight-room school building, the attic story of which serves for a girls' dormitory, the first and second floors for classrooms and the principal's office, and the basement for kitchen and dining-room. A remodelled barn answers for a dormitory for boys, and there is also an old farmhouse used principally for storage. The present annual appropriation for maintenance is \$7,000, and there are accommodations for about 70 students.

The course for teachers is three years in length, with an entrance requirement equivalent to the sixth grade of the public school. So many students, however, offered themselves, whose preparation fell below this standard, that a two-year preparatory course had to be added. The

¹This delay will be of advantage for another reason. The General Education Board is just beginning a thorough study of the training of rural teachers in Minnesota and other states. The results will probably be available within a year.

enrolment in the normal course in 1913-1914 was 43, with one special student, and in the preparatory department, 28, making a total of 72—an enrolment which taxes the accommodations to the limit.

The management of the school is excellent. The principal and his assistant are at once competent and “rural-minded.” An abandoned farm was part of the school property. As school and students were both needy, principal and students set to work to make the farm supply what they lacked. The result has been gratifying from every point of view. Supplies have been raised, because there was no money with which to buy them; in the process agriculture has been efficiently taught, and rural school teachers of the right type have been trained. Up to date, however, the graduates number only 25, and not all of these have become teachers.

The Maryland Normal and Industrial School at Bowie is, to be sure, not the only source of colored teachers: Hampton, Tuskegee, Cheney Normal School, Dover College, and others contribute; some are also obtained from the Washington High School, and from the Baltimore High School and Morgan College. Nevertheless, half of the colored teachers of the state have no certificates other than “postal card certificates”—that is, they are permitted to teach without having passed any examination at all, the county superintendents selecting those most likely to succeed, irrespective of academic and professional credentials.

The only other institution within the state, besides the

Maryland Normal and Industrial School and the Baltimore High School, that attempts to prepare elementary colored teachers, is the Princess Anne Academy, under the management of the Morgan College Corporation. This school has a good-sized farm and rather ample quarters and equipment. While it is essentially a preparatory school for Morgan College, yet the employment of Federal funds has made agriculture and agricultural pursuits prominent and given to the school an industrial atmosphere. Special attention has lately been given to the preparation of teachers. Besides regular courses during the year, a summer school with an enrolment of about 40 was conducted in 1915. The school is located near the colored population centre of the Eastern Shore, readily accessible, and is in position to exert a good influence upon the public schools of that section.

This brief statement will show that Maryland's present facilities for training negro teachers are altogether inadequate, even though we reckon, as an additional factor, the industrial schools supported in 16 counties at an annual cost to the state of \$22,500. There is, therefore, every reason why the school at Bowie should be developed and made the centre for the training of colored teachers for at least the Western Shore, if not for the entire state. To do this its facilities will need to be largely increased and the teaching staff developed, so that it will be in position to give instruction to larger numbers of prospective teachers during the year and to offer helpful work during the summer to those now in service.

But the development of the school at Bowie alone will not be sufficient. Maryland would do well to follow the example of Virginia and other Southern States in the establishment of County Training Schools—schools which, while giving appropriate instruction of a secondary grade, will also provide for a certain amount of teacher training. In this way a gradually improved teaching force, particularly for the rural schools, can be built up.

Our position regarding the teachers of Maryland may then be briefly summarized. The profession is without standards, without even the possibility of standards. Some form of central control must be instituted; teachers must be differentiated on the basis of their particular functions; and appointments must be made by the County Superintendent, who, under the new order, will necessarily be a trained officer. Meanwhile, the reorganized normal schools of the state, coöperating with the reorganized county school organization, should prove an important influence in improving teachers now in service.

VII. ENROLMENT AND ATTENDANCE

IN THE effort to ascertain how well Maryland educates its children and what measures it must take to improve educational facilities, we have thus far discussed the administrative organization, state and county, and the character and qualifications of the supervising and teaching bodies. We have criticised the county boards as politically constituted, the county superintendents as lacking in technical training and stability of tenure, the teaching body as ill-prepared and heterogeneous. Exceptions have indeed been gladly noted. A few county boards are non-political; a few county superintendents are competent and secure; some teachers—indeed, not a few—are well-trained, intelligent, and progressive. Nevertheless, these exceptions, important as they are, do not really leaven the mass.

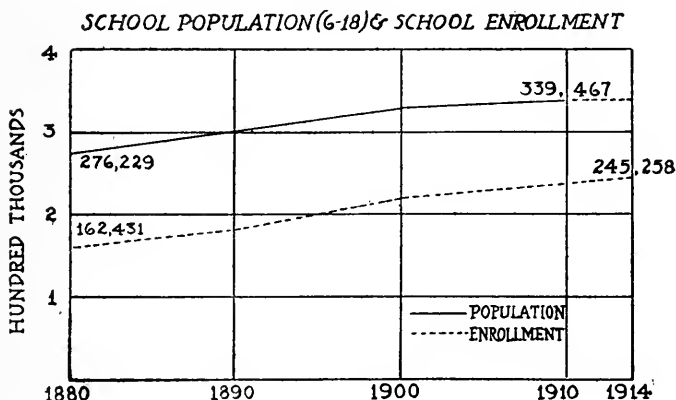
Whether or not the organization which we have thus described does the best that it is capable of doing depends on two factors to the consideration of which we now turn, viz.: (1) the regularity with which children attend school, and (2) the course of instruction through which they are put. To the former topic the present chapter will be devoted.

The legal school age in Maryland is from five to twenty years of age. But children will neither start to school

at five nor remain until they are twenty. It would therefore be absurd to criticise enrolment and attendance on the basis of the statutory requirement. It is however fair to expect children to begin school at six; and now that high schools are developing, it is important to ascertain how many pupils remain up to, say, eighteen. Accordingly, children from six to eighteen years of age are regarded in this chapter as constituting the school population.

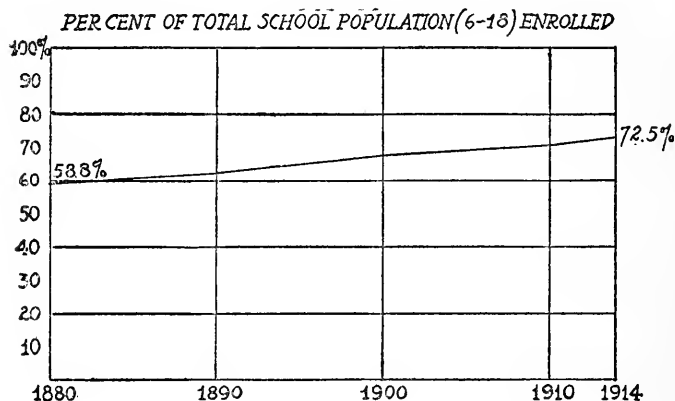
The number of children in Maryland between 6 and 18 has increased decidedly since 1880. There were 276,229 children of school age in Maryland in 1880; there were 339,467 in 1914. Simultaneously, as might be expected, the number of children enrolled in schools has also increased. What is more, the increase in school enrolment has been larger than the increase in school population. Conditions have therefore improved. (Fig. 4.) In 1880

FIG. 4

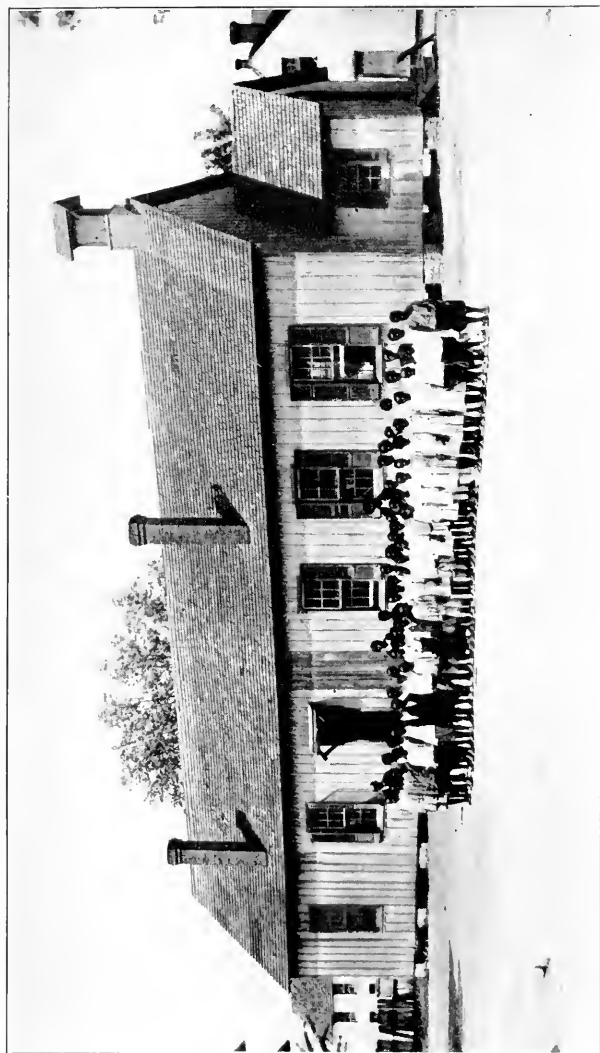


only 59 per cent. of the white and colored children between 6 and 18 were in school, whereas in 1914, 73 per cent. were registered. In a word, in 1880, 41 children out of each 100 that should have been in school were not there, while in 1914 only 27 out of each 100 were out altogether. (Fig. 5.) Children are, of course, and

FIG. 5



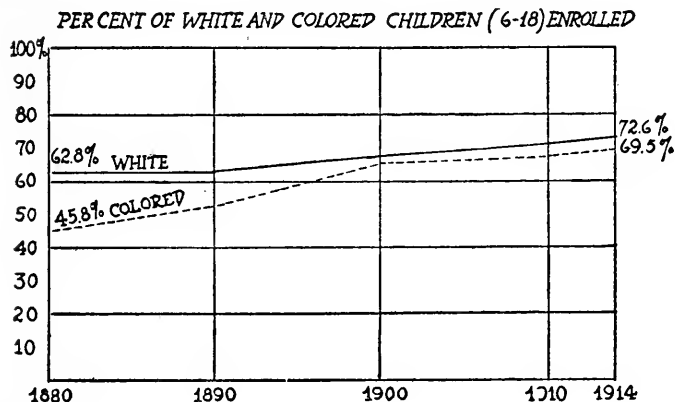
have always been, enrolled in other than public schools. We have no means of knowing how many attended private and parochial schools in 1880, nor do we know how many attend private and parochial schools to-day. There can be no doubt, however, that a larger percentage of the school population attended public schools in 1914 than attended in 1880. Public school enrolment is, however, even now less than three-fourths of the school population.



Poor type of two-room school

Up to 1900 the situation is partly explained by the non-enrolment of large numbers of colored children. (Fig. 6.) Since 1900, however, the difference between

FIG. 6

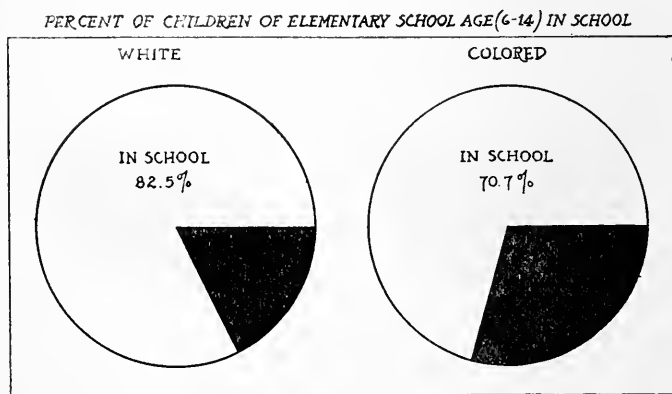


the enrolment of colored children and the enrolment of white children has become practically negligible. In that year there were enrolled 68 per cent. of the white as against 66 per cent. of the colored children, and 2 to 3 per cent. continues to measure the difference.

Were there an up-to-date and complete school census giving the number of children of each age and the number at school, it would be possible to determine accurately the number of children of each age who are not enrolled. Such data are not available, for Maryland does not take a state school census. Hence, there is no telling how enrolment varies with age. The Federal Census, how-

ever, throws some light on the question. On the basis of its figures for 1910 it appears that, of children between 6 and 14 years of age, 17 white children out of each 100, and 29 colored children out of each 100 are not enrolled. (Fig. 7.) Of children between 15 and 18—i. e., the high

FIG. 7



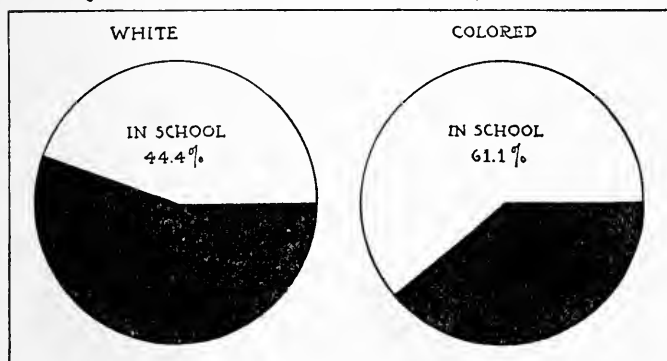
school age—only 44 per cent. of the white and 61 per cent. of the colored children are in school (Fig. 8)—not, of course, in the high school; for 40 per cent. of the white children in school between 15 and 18 years old are floundering about between the second and the seventh grades of the elementary school,¹ and the same is true of all the colored pupils. These figures may not be absolutely

¹This statement is made upon the basis of the per cent. of children between 15 and 18 in these grades in the cities. See Table VI.

correct, but they serve to explain why in the Federal Census of 1910 Maryland ranks twenty-third in point of illiteracy.

FIG. 8

PERCENT OF CHILDREN OF HIGH SCHOOL AGE (15-18) IN SCHOOL



An efficient system of public schools not only enrolls children, but holds at least those who are physically and mentally normal until they have finished the elementary, if not the high school, course. The school records of Maryland are so incomplete that it is impossible to determine with accuracy the number of grades finished by children before they drop out of school. But enough is known to show that the situation is deplorably bad. Under normal conditions children start to school in their seventh year (i. e., when they are six years old); therefore, if the system is efficient—if, that is, they start to school at six and remain consecutively, there ought to be just

about as many children in the second class or grade as there were in the first. Now in cities having a population of 2,500 or more, exclusive of Baltimore, there were enrolled in the winter term last year 1,916 children from eight to nine years of age, and only 1,590 children from six to seven years of age.¹ In other words, about 16 per cent. of the children started from one to two years too late. In consequence, many of the late beginners will drop out of school without completing the elementary curriculum; for a late start reduces the number of years spent in school and, as a rule, reduces the number of grades finished. Efforts must therefore be made to get children into school more promptly.

Once started, the schools, even though there is no adequate compulsory attendance law, hold the children fairly well until they pass the age of thirteen. The original enrolment of 1,590 rises three years later to 1,930, gradually declining until there are 1,598 children in

¹TABLE V

AGES AND GRADES OF CHILDREN IN THE CITIES

GRADES	AGES																	Total by Grades
	Under 6	6 up to 7	7 up to 8	8 up to 9	9 up to 10	10 up to 11	11 up to 12	12 up to 13	13 up to 14	14 up to 15	15 up to 16	16 up to 17	17 up to 18	18 up to 19	19 up to 20	20 and over		
I	4	1579	1245	683	308	133	43	16	5	5			1				4022	
II		11	354	845	671	346	166	89	37	19	3						2541	
III			33	351	625	528	336	186	98	44	10	1					2212	
IV				36	296	541	476	344	219	86	34	7					2039	
V				1	30	246	463	474	339	184	65	23	1				1826	
VI						48	164	379	361	260	112	49	9				1382	
VII						6	34	172	338	300	175	58	13	3			1099	
VIII							2	48	164	276	232	124	41	6	3		896	
IX							1	6	34	159	209	170	85	22	3		669	
X									2	38	105	175	119	59	18	4	520	
XI									1	7	22	84	116	112	33	10	385	
XII											1	9	23	22	4		59	
Total Ages	4	1590	1632	1916	1930	1848	1685	1714	1598	1358	968	700	408	224	61	14	17650	

attendance in their fourteenth year. But these figures do not indicate orderly progress through the elementary grades. If children started to school when six years of age, fourteen-year-old children would normally be found in the eighth grade. If they start later than six, they will as a rule be correspondingly retarded. Now in the cities under consideration, fourteen-year-old children (Table VI), instead of being concentrated in the eighth grade, are scattered from the first to the eleventh grades: five were still in the first grade; 19 had finished the first and reached the second; 300 had reached grade seven, and 276, grade eight. About two-thirds of the children under fourteen years of age—to be precise, 898 out of 1,358—were from one to seven grades in arrears; 44 per cent. had either not reached or not finished more than grade V; only 13 per cent. were normal or ahead of normal.¹

¹TABLE VI
GRADES COMPLETED BY CHILDREN 14 TO 15 YEARS OF AGE

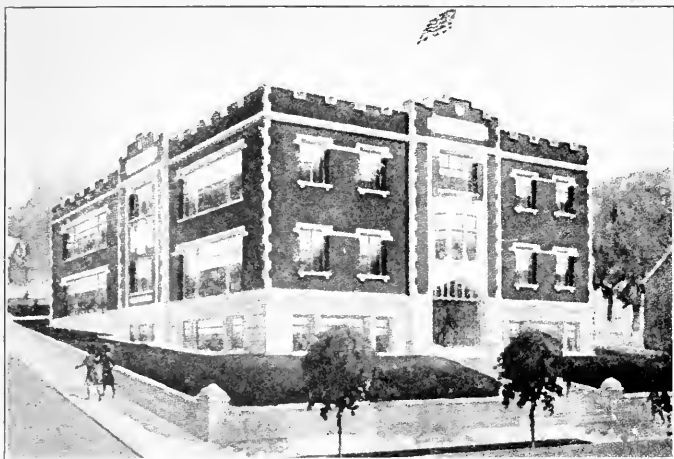
GRADES COMPLETED AND GRADES NOW IN												
	Still in Grade 1	Completed I and in II	Completed II and in III	Completed III and in IV	Completed IV and in V	Completed V and in VI	Completed VI and in VII	Completed VII and in VIII	Completed VIII and in IX	Completed IX and in X	Completed X and in XI	Total
No of Children	5	19	44	86	184	260	300	276	139	38	7	1358
Percent	.4	1.4	3.2	6.3	13.5	19.1	22.1	20.3	10.2	2.8	.5	99.8

On this showing, probably 50 per cent. of the white children of the state, not to mention the colored children, are taking up the duties of life with no more than a fourth or a fifth grade education. Very few, indeed, go much further. For, of the original enrolment we are now considering, the figures show that while 17 per cent. will leave school before they are fourteen, 50 per cent. will leave before reaching fifteen, and 80 per cent. before reaching eighteen. That is, not more than one in five stays long enough to finish the high school, and not to exceed three out of ten, even if progress were regular, remain long enough to complete the elementary school.

This estimate can be confirmed from another direction.¹ Out of the 17,650 children in the schools of the cities in the winter term of 1915 (Table VII), only 374, or 2 per cent., were ahead of their grade for their age, as compared

¹ TABLE VII
CHILDREN UNDER AGE, NORMAL AGE AND OVER AGE

Number in Each Grade				Total in each Grade	Percent in Each Grade		
Grades	Under Age	Normal Age	Over Age		Under Age	Normal Age	Over Age
I	4	1579	2439	4022	.1	39.3	60.6
II	11	354	2176	2541	.4	13.9	85.7
III	33	351	1828	2212	1.5	15.8	82.7
IV	36	296	1707	2039	1.8	14.5	83.7
V	31	246	1549	1826	1.7	13.5	84.8
VI	48	164	1170	1382	3.5	11.8	84.7
VII	40	172	887	1099	3.6	15.7	80.7
VIII	50	164	682	896	5.6	18.3	76.1
IX	41	139	489	669	6.1	20.8	73.1
X	40	105	375	520	7.7	20.2	72.1
XI	30	84	271	385	7.8	21.9	70.3
XII	10	23	26	59	17.	39.	44.
Total	374	3677	13599	17650	2.2	20.8	77.



Modern Elementary School



Recess in up-to-date urban school

to 13,599, or 77 per cent., who were behind their grade.¹ These figures are, of course, not absolutely accurate; but the possible error² in them would not greatly modify our

¹Table VII is based on Table V. In Table V the number to the left of the block represents the children in the grade under age, the number in the block those of normal age, and the number to the right of the block those over-age. Over-age in this case is judged from the point of view of entering the grade, 6 up to 7 being taken as the normal age for beginning the first grade, 7 up to 8 for the second grade, and so on. On this basis a child should enter the eighth grade between 13 and up to 14 and complete an eighth-grade course by 15.

The ages of the children are those of their last birthday, and not, as they should be, when over-age is judged from entering the grade in a system having annual promotion, as of the beginning of the official school year. What difference in the amount of over-age reported, this difference in the time of taking the ages of the children makes, it is impossible to say, but in all probability it is very small. Again, the ages of the children are those recorded in the school records by the teachers as given by the children themselves. No documentary evidence of age is required, nor is there any great effort made on the part of the teachers to verify the age given.

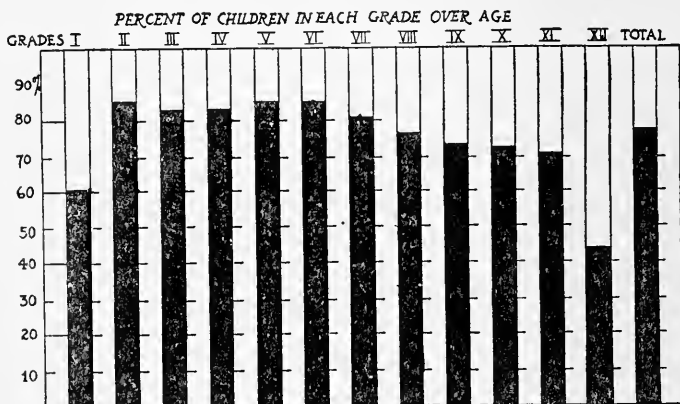
Finally, there is one point at issue which makes, according as it is settled, a difference of 30 per cent. in the amount of over-age reported. There are those who claim that the elementary school course in Maryland is an eight-year course, the additional grade being accounted for by the first grade's covering the work ordinarily done in the first and second years. There is nothing in the state course of study to justify this position. Nor is there anything in the first-grade enrolment of the fourteen cities from which the data were collected, except at Annapolis, Brunswick, Cristfield, Hagerstown, and Cumberland. But a study of the work of the first grade in at least three of these places reveals on the one hand rather more advanced instruction in arithmetic than is ordinarily done in the first grade, but shows on the other that reading is on the whole under grade. Hence even in the cities having an unusual large first-grade enrolment, there is no ground for holding that the first grade represents two years of school work.

²This error may arise from two factors: (1) Children may blunder slightly in stating their age; (2) there is some confusion, due to the fact that, as the course of study is planned for seven years, it is a question whether the first grade does not represent two years' work. However, even were it assumed that the first grade combines two years' work, 47 per cent. of the children, above considered, would be over-age—a condition scarcely paralleled in any American city in which the problem of over-age has been investigated.

verdict. The conditions which they reveal are, to say the least, very bad.

Over-age—i. e., being older than a normal child in a given class¹ should be—is more serious in the upper than in the lower grades. For a young child who has fallen behind may by working hard catch up with his class. If, however, he is in an upper grade, the chances are that, should he fall behind, he will drop out of school, instead of retrieving the lost ground. In Maryland over-age runs straight through the schools. Enormous numbers of children of all grades are behind where they ought to be. (Fig. 9.) Eighty-five children out of every hundred are over-age in the second grade; and 81 out of one hundred

FIG. 9



¹The "normal" child in this sense is the child who is in Grade I when he is six years old and thereafter advances at the rate of one grade every year.

in the seventh grade. Conditions are practically as bad in the high school, where 76 per cent. are behind in the first year, and 70 per cent. in the fourth year of the course.¹

As has been already pointed out, over-age almost inevitably results in abbreviating the child's stay in school. This is certainly the case when children are retarded more than a year or two. (Fig. 10.) For children who ought to finish their elementary schooling at fourteen will not remain till they are sixteen or seventeen for that purpose. Now the 3,943 children² who are between one and two years behind their grade would, if they remain in school and advance regularly, be between 16 and 17 when they complete the elementary course. Similarly, the 1,058 who are between three and four years behind their proper grade would be between 18 and 19 on completing the elementary course of study. Of course children do not

¹See Table VII on page 88.

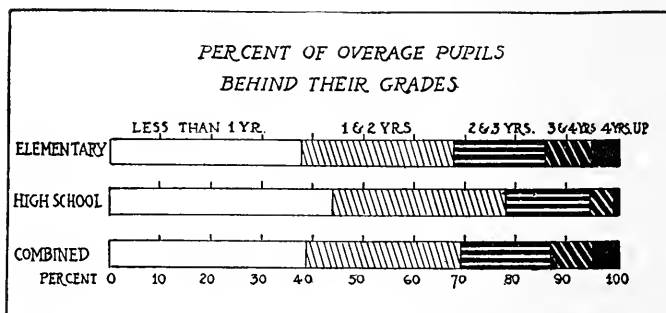
²TABLE VIII

THE NUMBER OF YEARS PUPILS ARE OVER AGE

Grade	Less than one year	1 year and less than 2	2 years and less than 3	3 years and less than 4	4 years and more	Total Over-Age
I	1245	683	308	133	70	2439
II	845	671	346	166	148	2176
III	626	528	336	186	153	1828
IV	541	476	344	219	127	1707
V	463	474	339	184	89	1549
VI	379	361	260	112	58	1170
VII	338	300	175	58	16	887
Total	4456	3493	2108	1058	661	11756
VIII	276	232	124	41	9	682
IX	209	170	85	22	3	489
X	175	119	59	18	4	375
XI	116	112	33	8	1	271
XII	22	4	-	-	-	26
Total	798	637	301	89	17	1843
Grand Total	5254	4130	2409	1147	678	13599

remain in the lower school to any such ages. If they did, there would now be about 4,000 children 16 years of age or older in the elementary schools of the Maryland towns we have been considering; there are, as a matter of fact, only 165.¹ It is thus evident that probably 98 per cent.

FIG. 10



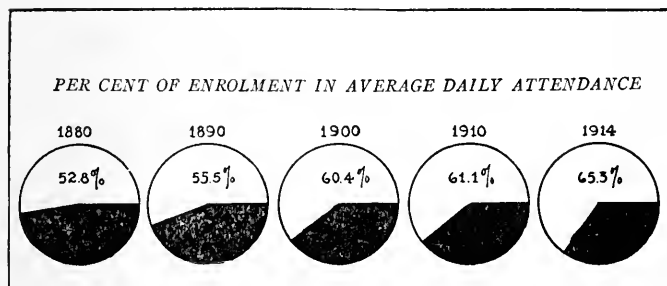
of the children now behind their grade will drop out before completing the course; in all probability they will lose just about as many grades as they are now in arrears. Our estimate, then, that not to exceed 50 per cent. of the white children enrolled in the schools are getting more than a fifth-grade education is shown to be well within the facts.

Several factors combine to account for the extent of over-age in the Maryland schools. Late entrance is one; irregular attendance, another. Children once enrolled

¹See Table V, page 86.

cannot be promoted regularly unless they attend regularly. It has already been pointed out that the enrolment falls short of the school population. Attention must now be directed to the fact that, of the children who are enrolled—children, that is, who propose to attend school, only about half attended on the average in 1880; since then attendance has steadily improved until in 1914 the average daily attendance, in so far as the enrolment is concerned, reached 65.3 per cent. (Fig. 11.)

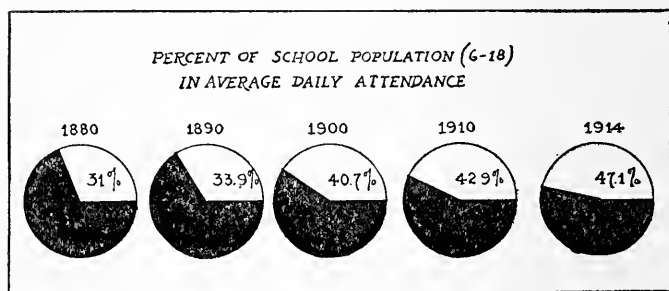
FIG. 11



This is, to be sure, a great improvement from the standpoint of 1880; but it is still poor; for it means that of every one hundred children enrolled, 34 are now absent daily. The plant thus seems to be running at only two-thirds capacity. As a matter of fact, it is far from doing even this! For attendance should be calculated on the basis of school population, not of school enrolment—on the basis, that is, of the children who ought to be going to school rather than on the basis of those who are really

going. Thus considered, the average daily attendance was 31 per cent. in 1880—less, that is, than one-third of what it should have been; and it was 47.1 per cent. in 1914—less than one-half of what it should have been. The plant is working, therefore, not two-thirds capacity—assuming that there are accommodations for all children between 6 and 18—but less than one-half capacity. (Fig. 12.) Hence the schools are not doing half their job,

FIG. 12



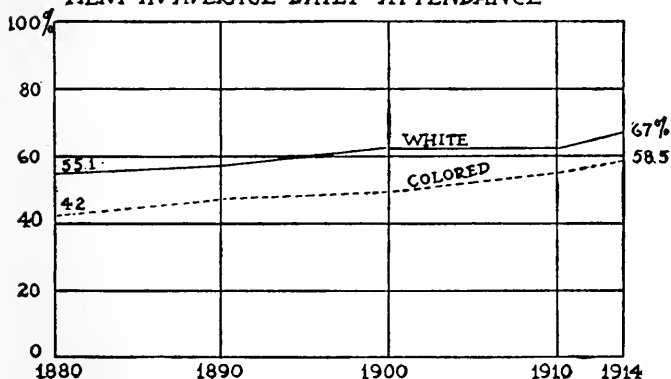
even when quantity alone is considered.

In these statements no distinction is made between white and colored children. One might suppose that a high average attendance among white children is brought down by a low average attendance on the part of colored children. This is, however, not the case. Colored children do indeed attend school less regularly than white, but the difference is not sufficient to account for the bad showing. In 1914 the attendance of colored children averaged 59 per cent. against 67 per cent. for whites: that

is, 33 white children out of every hundred were missing as against 41 colored. (Fig. 13.)

FIG. 13

PERCENT OF WHITE & COLORED SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE

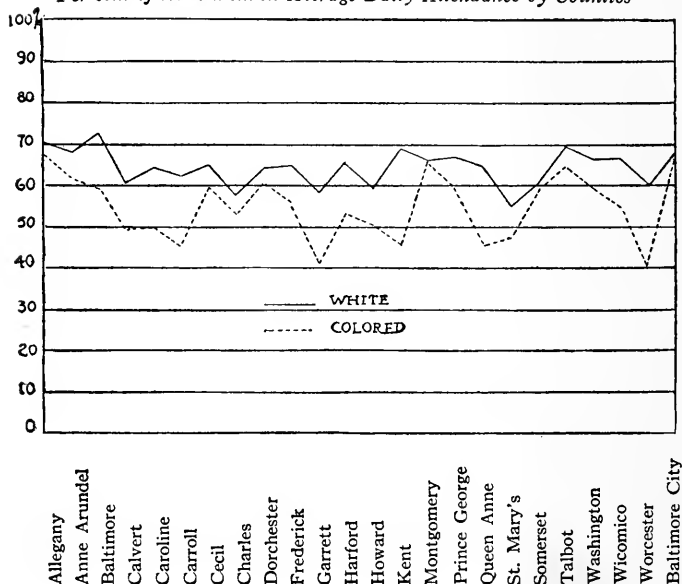


Conditions do, however, vary greatly in the various counties. Whether children attend school regularly or not depends on several factors—on the attitude of parents, on the merits of the schools, on the condition of roads, etc. Obviously, sections differ in these respects. (Fig. 14.) Baltimore County, with a relatively superior school system and good physical conditions, leads the white schools of the state with an average daily attendance of 73 per cent.; St. Mary's brings up the rear with 55 per cent. Even were the white schools of these two counties of equal efficiency, Baltimore County gives its children a better education with only 27 out of each one hundred

absent daily than St. Mary's gives with 45 absent daily. Similar differences are to be observed in the attendance

FIG. 14

Per cent of Enrolment in Average Daily Attendance by Counties

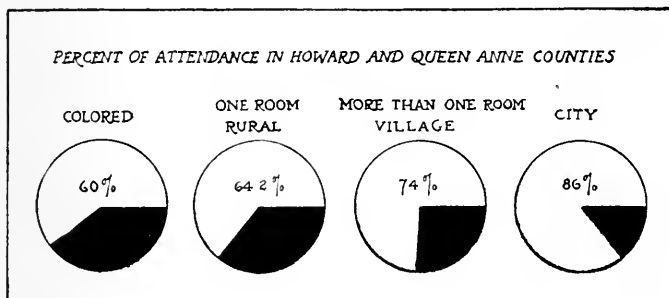


of colored children. For example, the average number of colored children in attendance in 1914 in Worcester County was 40 per cent. of the enrolment, whereas 55 per cent. attended in Wicomico.

The tabulated records of the county superintendents are so lacking in details that a more intensive study of attendance cannot be made. There is no way of telling

from the reports whether children attend city schools more regularly or less regularly than rural schools; whether they attend the one-room school more regularly or less regularly than the two- or three-room school. For the purpose of furnishing an illustration of what should and can be always done in this matter, a special investigation was made in Howard and Queen Anne counties, the former located in the central part of the Eastern Shore, the latter in the central section of the Western Shore.¹ In these counties attendance was poorest in the colored schools and best in the city schools (Ellicott City and Centerville). (Fig. 15.) The great difficulty

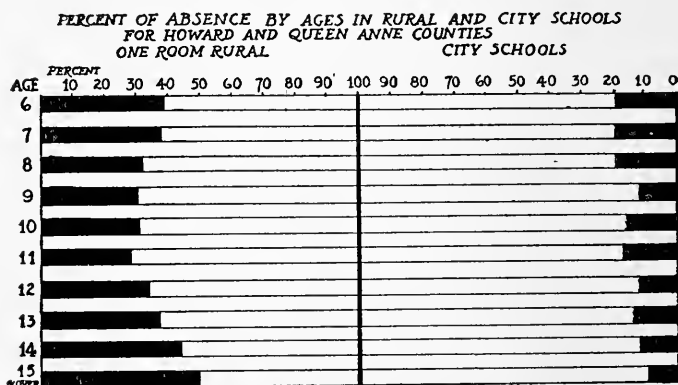
FIG. 15



¹Data were collected upon the number of days each child enrolled was in school during the Winter Term of 1915. In presenting these data, attendance is computed upon the basis of the number of days the schools were open during the term in question and upon the number of days of actual attendance. Ordinarily, attendance is computed upon the basis of the days in school after a child once enrolls, no account thus being taken of the days lost or the absence due to entering a week or two after the opening of the term.

of getting to and from school accounts in part only for the lower attendance in the case of the one-room rural and village school as compared with the city schools. No small part of the difference is doubtless due to lack of interest in education on the part of parents. This lack is clearly revealed when the difference of age is taken into account. For at every age, city children attend more regularly than country children. (Fig. 16.) Now, the

FIG. 16



country boy has no pressing work on the farm in winter. Differences in physical conditions do not, therefore, clearly explain why 86 per cent. of the city children of 13 attend school as against 63 per cent. of country children; or why 88 per cent. of the city children of 14 attend as against 56 per cent. of country children. The attitude of parents and the quality of the instruction are factors

of great importance, especially in the absence of effective machinery for bringing about attendance.

Even more striking are the differences in the attendance of the children of high school age. In one-room rural schools, pupils 15 years of age and over comprise only 9 per cent. of the total enrolment; and this 9 per cent. attended school only 50 per cent. of the time. In city schools, on the other hand, this same age-group makes up 26 per cent. of the total enrolment and they make an attendance record of 91 per cent. The failure of the one-room rural school not only to attract but to hold children 15 or more years of age thus unquestionably indicates both a lack of supporting sentiment on the part of parents, and, quite as clearly, the inability of the one-room rural school to provide work suited to the ability and the interests of children of high school age.

Whatever the causes of the poor attendance, that 14 per cent. of the children enrolled in the schools of the cities should be absent every day is bad enough; but that as many as 36 per cent. of those in one-room rural schools should be continuously absent is fatal to effective work. What can be expected in the way of instruction when in one-room rural schools 31 per cent. of the children, in the village schools 19 per cent., and in the city schools 8 per cent., are absent on the average more than half the time? The significance of these facts in terms of the amount of instruction received is illustrated by conditions in a fifth grade containing 6 pupils in the Sandy

Mountain School of Carroll County. During the first 100 days of the past school year, the number of spelling lessons received by each pupil was as follows: One pupil received the full 100 lessons—for he was never absent—the second received 98, the third 94, the fourth 81, the fifth 69, the sixth 57, for he was absent almost half of the time. If the work to be properly done required 100 lessons, a pupil receiving only 57 lessons has at best covered but slightly more than half of the work of the grade.

The effect of absence would be less disastrous if it were continuous at some one period; that is, one prolonged absence is infinitely preferable to recurrence of brief periods of absence. Yet recurrence is the rule. The child comes to school for a few days and then stays away a few days; and thus throughout the year. A single case will illustrate. Pupil "A" in School No. 2, District 7, Carroll County, was present the first four days of the first week of the term. Then an absence of five days occurred, followed by five days in school and eight days out. A single day covered the next period of attendance; then five days of absence; next two days at school and two at home, and so on to the end of the term.

Absence destroys the morale and wastes the time not only of the absentee but of the entire school. A teacher, seeking to keep the absentees up with the class, gives them special attention when they do attend, and in this way neglects the pupils regularly at school. Or, despair-

ing of keeping the absentees up to grade, she makes of them a separate group, thus adding to the already excessive number of classes. Effective work is impossible under such conditions.

The friends of public education in Maryland have not been unaware of the situation which we have described. The State Board of Education, the county superintendents, and bodies of citizens have repeatedly urged the passage of a compulsory school attendance law. At a recent session of the legislature their hopes seemed about to be realized. When, however, the proposed bill came from the legislature most of its effective features had been eliminated. Worse still, compulsory measures were made optional with the county school boards, Howard, Kent, Anne Arundel, Worcester, St. Mary's, and Somerset counties being even denied the privilege of exercising an option. Wretched as is this makeshift, the law has had a perceptible effect, as is evidenced by the increase of attendance between 1910 and 1914.¹ Maryland is, however, for all practical purposes still without an attendance law worthy of the name. In consequence, her public schools are now reaching less than three-fourths of the white children of school age (6-18), while probably half of her white children are taking up the duties of parenthood and of citizenship with a fifth-grade education or less. More money may be spent upon schoolhouses, better prepared and higher priced teachers

¹See Figs. 12 and 13.

may be employed, and adequate professional control and supervision may be provided, but unless the children of school age are gotten into the schools and kept there regularly, the results achieved must continue to be unsatisfactory.

VIII. INSTRUCTION

OF ALL the difficulties connected with judging an educational system, perhaps the most serious is the difficulty of reaching and justifying a judgment as to the quality of instruction. Within any given system, no matter what the conditions in respect to the training of teachers, their appointment, or their supervision, great variations, arising from differences of ability and industry, will inevitably occur. Under the most unfavorable circumstances effective teaching will sometimes be found. It would therefore be unfair to brand all the teaching in Maryland as poor, simply because general conditions make for poor teaching.

Again, the investigator's unaided judgment is not invariably sound. It ought to be possible to prove teaching good or bad by objective tests; and indeed a promising movement in this direction is well under way. Aside, however, from other obstacles, the technique of testing is perhaps hardly as yet well enough established to warrant a state-wide application. Besides the defects of teaching to which we shall call attention are too obvious, too widespread to require elaborate demonstration.

In the course of our study of public education in Maryland, elementary schools were visited in every county

of the state; altogether more than 450 elementary teachers were observed in giving about 900 lessons, every grade and every subject being included. As schools were visited at random, it may be considered that the general situation was adequately sampled. The points in reference to which instruction was observed were, as will appear in the course of this chapter, simple, fundamental, and untechnical. In the first place, we tried to ascertain whether the instruction was such as to promise children a competent mastery of the necessary tools of knowledge—reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic; whether good judgment or poor judgment was used in determining the amount and character of the material studied in these subjects. Were children reading well-selected pieces? Were they learning to spell usable or useless words? Were they doing sensible or absurd arithmetical problems?

In addition to the fundamental studies the course of study in Maryland includes a considerable variety of subjects—geography, history, literature, science, etc.—subjects that have not only instrumental but inspirational value. They assist a child to find his place in the world and society; they increase the range of his interests and activities. Such subjects may be mechanically taught, so as to do little good, or they may be inspiringly taught, so as to stir the child more or less deeply. Wherever we went, we endeavored to gauge the child's reaction—to determine, that is, whether the instruction was genuine or merely routine.

Closely allied is another point of view. We spoke just

now of helping the child to find his place in the world. The schools used to do their teaching regardless of children's experiences and environment. Nowadays there is general agreement that the child's experiences and surroundings furnish the teacher with material to be used, and suggest to him important ends to strive toward. Without pretending to offer in this connection a complete theory of education, we venture to think that instruction may fairly be viewed from the standpoint of the child's experiences, immediate surroundings, and probable needs.

Finally, the child's progress is to be considered. The very term "course of study" suggests orderly development. The Maryland elementary school course, occupying seven years, promises systematic progress through a variety of studies. Does the instruction realize the promise? Do children move from point to point without needless friction and waste? Or is the classroom work more or less of treadmill character?

These, then, are the questions informally asked regarding the work of the Maryland teachers. Do children learn to master the fundamental subjects? Are their interests stimulated? Are the materials well chosen? Are local needs heeded? Are time and energy conserved? The questions are obviously not exhaustive, but, as will appear, they amply serve our present purpose.

A casual visitor whose good fortune led him into selected schools in almost any county might answer these questions in the affirmative. In almost every

county of the state some teachers are doing excellent work. Their schoolrooms are bright and attractive; their pupils alert and happy; their methods intelligent and effective; the course of study is adapted to individual and to community needs. The teacher's ability, training, and ambition triumph over whatever adverse conditions may exist.

Nonetheless, the system does not tend to produce these results; they come about in spite of the system. In the main, therefore, while gladly recognizing the existence of exceptions, we are constrained to answer negatively the questions above asked. Children do not, for the most part, learn to master their tools; their interests are far from sufficiently stimulated; local needs get, as a rule, scant attention; time and energy are freely wasted.

In the first place, the general attitude of most teachers is unsound. They regard it as their main business, after keeping order, to impart to children a prescribed body of facts or information—so much spelling, so much arithmetic, so much geography. The facts are all there in the text-books, and the teachers proceed on the assumption that one fact is as good as another. Whatever is printed on the page is taught without discrimination. Imagine, then, a teacher giving a sixth-grade class of rural children a spelling lesson made up of such words as *monsieur*, *connoisseur*, *sobriquet*, *sang froid*, and so on. A third-grade geography lesson upon the Middle Atlantic States illustrates the same point. "Name the Middle Atlantic States," directs the teacher, and the pupils answer either

individually or in concert. "What is the capital of Maryland?" "Of what is Washington the capital?" "Who knows what Washington is on?" "What is the capital of Virginia?" So on for the remaining states of this division. Not a single question was put by the teacher calculated to arouse interest, to compel thought, or to bring out the meaning of what had been memorized. Nor did the teacher make a single comment herself. Thus, in subject after subject, children are expected to acquire facts through memorizing printed pages. Meanwhile, strange though it seem, not half the 400 teachers visited felt that they themselves must know these facts. For the majority, while conducting the recitation, were compelled to keep their eyes glued on the text in order to ask the questions; not infrequently the whole performance stopped, so as to enable the teacher to read ahead to the next question. Sometimes the teacher was compelled to look at the book to see whether the answers given were correct.

Not only must the child "recite" the facts just learned, he must, of course, "retain" them. Hence they must be thoroughly beaten in and fixed permanently in memory. Thus endless reviews and ever-recurrent drills are accounted for. In some schools as much as half of the school year is devoted to "reviews"; not uncommonly it was stated that pupils had covered the same books three or four times. A certain amount of review is, of course, needed to bring out the relations between different subjects and different parts of the same subject;

so also a certain amount of properly conducted drill, in order to gain accuracy and facility in conducting fundamental operations. But reviewing and drilling as carried on in most Maryland schools is a cruel and wasteful procedure calculated to kill interest and to destroy the child's capacity for constructive thinking.

A volume of this kind is not the place for a full exposition of modern ideas on teaching method. It may, however, not be amiss to point out that a "recitation," instead of the mechanical process above described, should be a coöperative and constructive enterprise, in which children work out a problem, each doing his part according to his ability and special assignment. It may take dramatic form—one child being the "big bear," another the "mother bear," still another the "little bear," and one "Silver Locks"; or one group of pupils may solve and explain to the class a given set of examples, while another group is engaged with other problems; or in the study of such topics as Tomato Raising on the Eastern Shore, the Manufacture and Distribution of Fertilizer, Sanitary Conditions in the School District, one pupil may look up illustrative material such as pictures, while another arranges experiments, and still another brings before the class a review of what they have already learned. Thus in a hundred ways the recitation may be made a period of working together in the achievement of a common end, quickening the interest of the children, giving them opportunity to think, and engendering a social spirit. And, be it repeated, here and there

throughout the state one really encounters classroom work of this description.

The problem of discipline hinges largely on the quality of instruction. Generally speaking, there exists in Maryland a cordial relation between pupils and teachers; the children seem anxious to do what is required. Still they would not be human if they did not involuntarily revolt against a system of education which consigns active boys and girls, for long periods of time, to uncomfortable desks to pore over text-books, only to be called up and questioned upon what they have just absorbed. Under such conditions it is not surprising that the more vigorous and active find secret ways of amusement, while the majority sit passive, doing worse than nothing a considerable part of the time.

There is a tendency, nowadays, to account for ineffective teaching of the fundamental branches on the ground that teachers and children are so distracted by "recent fads" that there is neither time nor energy left for the "essentials." Whether or not this apology is anywhere valid, it is not for us to say; at least, it has no application to Maryland. The state course of study does indeed require that certain modern subjects should be taught; but its injunctions are not usually followed. Manual training and domestic science, for example, are found as a rule only in cities, though Baltimore and Wicomico counties encourage their use in rural districts, too. Music is usually limited to the singing of songs in connection with morning exercises; little attention is, as a rule, paid

to drawing. In many cities and in quite all villages and rural sections, the only branches taught are reading, writing, spelling, language and grammar, arithmetic, geography, history, and physiology. To the three R's Maryland children now devote fully three-quarters of their school time. In some counties arithmetic consumes almost half of the entire school day; not exceeding one-quarter of the day goes to geography, history, physiology, and to whatever there may be in the way of music, drawing, and the like. Under these conditions there is certainly no ground in Maryland for thinking that the "fads" have usurped the place of the "important" studies.

Meanwhile, the time that might well be devoted to the so-called "fads" is worse than wasted. Too untrained to make use of alternative occupations—weaving, basketry, literature, art, industry, or domestic science—the teacher is hard put to it to keep the class constantly occupied with book and seat work. Hence little children are required to copy the alphabet over and over, or to write again and again the numerals from one to a hundred, or, on occasions, up to two or three thousand. Older children, having acquired some ability to write, are set to copying page after page of their readers, or to solving on paper long lists of problems placed on the blackboard. Thus to kill time, the first-grade pupils divide 7,649,634 by 7, and third-grade pupils divide 35,897,678,926 by 2,076. A favorite task, especially for older children, is to require them to write a corrected mistake 50 or 100 times!



Exhibition of manual training, drawing, canning, and garden products

Of course formal reiterative work of this kind quickly degenerates into a purely mechanical repetition, during which the child's mind goes "wool-gathering," though the hands keep working away. Children may be kept "busy" through such assignments, but they will never be "taught." This is illustrated by the well-known story of the boy who having spelt "gone" "gorn" was required to write 500 times, "I have gone home." He completed the distasteful task by writing: "I am done and I have gorn home."

When the methods described fail, as fail they must, the untrained teacher naturally leaps to the conclusion that "more time" is needed. Accordingly, large assignments and enormous tasks are given out for home work. In consequence, children going home from school are to be seen almost everywhere with bundles of books portending night study. If school conditions were good, there would be no occasion for night work on the part of growing children. But even as conditions now are, in the majority of schools, no useful end is served by it. The children had better spend their after-school time at play, helping about the farm or the home, reading or asleep. "Home work" merely lengthens the hours of mechanical school drudgery. Nor is the value of the instruction any greater, even if some children can be tempted by prizes and privileges, to make greater efforts to master it.

What we have said above as to the general character of instruction may be briefly illustrated by separate sub-

jects. The most important of the common school studies is reading; and reading is important because—and only because—it is a key to *meanings*, to ideas, to information, etc. A child should therefore be taught not only to pronounce printed words, but to gather and to express the meaning of what he reads; for which purpose he should be trained to read not only aloud, but, as the children say, “to himself.” The children in the Maryland schools, like, we are in candor compelled to add, the children in most other schools, get little exercise in the art of reading beyond the mechanical utterance of printed words and sentences. Little or nothing is done in the reading lesson to arouse the imagination; reading is rarely used to cultivate facility in oral expression. Lacking, then, an adequate motive, reading in the lower grades is apt to degenerate into mere mumbling, and in the upper grades to drop out almost altogether. Only here and there does one find a teacher who realizes the possibilities of the subject.

Spelling is in substantially the same situation. In the elementary schools children should, for obvious reasons, learn to spell the words they themselves ordinarily use, the words they ordinarily hear, the words used in the other branches which they study, and, finally, words that are in common daily use. These words children must and can know both how to spell and how to use. The Maryland schools have reached no such conclusions as these on the subject of spelling. To them, as already pointed out, a word is a word, and it is just as important

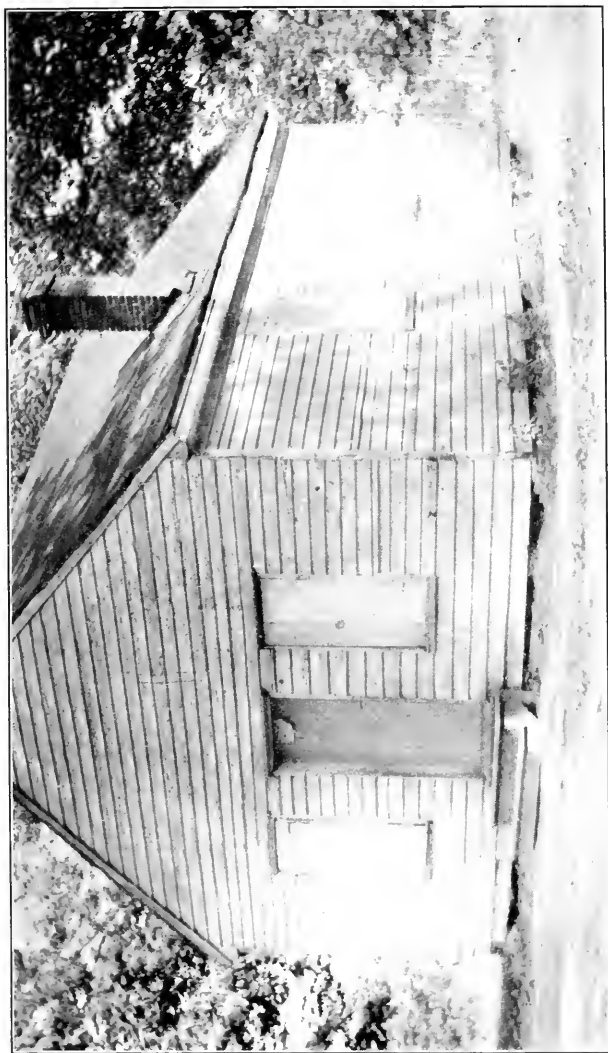
to learn one word as another. Accordingly, long and indiscriminate lists are given out, and from the fourth grade up, children endeavor unsuccessfully to become letter perfect in the acquisition of from 20 to 50 words a day.

Arithmetic, like spelling, is a tool needed for the transaction of the ordinary affairs of life. It ought, therefore, to be studied in connection with its uses; it is, moreover, a waste of time to study any more of it than can be used. Dry measure is thus not a table to be memorized from a book, but an instrument needed in order to buy potatoes, apples, peaches, and the like from the neighboring store. Occasionally—it would perhaps be more nearly accurate to say “rarely”—one sees arithmetic taught in Maryland from this standpoint. The teacher, in these instances, centres arithmetic almost entirely upon farming and its problems, leading the children to see that arithmetic is the basis of intelligent farm management. Incidentally, arithmetic managed in this way affords the teacher opportunity to give valuable lessons upon soils, crops, and soil exhaustion, and to study the ingredients of different fertilizers in relation to the needs of the locality. The child learns to “figure,” and much besides.

For the most part, however, arithmetic is taught in the schools of Maryland without reference to its uses; under which conditions one thing is just as important as another. Cube root and the mensuration of cubes, pyramids, and truncated cones receive as much attention as

home and farm accounting. Instruction, then, degenerates into memorizing formal tables and rules and the solution of printed problems. This formal work, already occupying from a fourth to a half of the time of the children at school, is also carried off to the home, where by lamplight long lists of printed problems are copied and solved by way of preparation for the next day, when the same problems are re-copied and re-solved. Not infrequently children have copied and solved, re-copied and re-solved these problems so many times that they can repeat whole pages of them from memory.

While some good teaching was observed in the field of geography, the greater part of the teachers do not realize that the prime source of geographic materials is the immediate environment of the school: the mountains and hills, the rivers and valleys, the effect of climate and change of season upon vegetable life, animal life, and local industrial and commercial activities. Instead, they follow a printed text. Hence, children recite haltingly about tidal-rivers and their significance, without knowing that the brook just across from the schoolhouse is a tidal-river; or they answer questions about the Appalachian Mountains, even giving the names and location of the minor ranges, without realizing that the mountains seen from the schoolhouse window are the ones they are talking about. Again, in physiology, pupils recite about bacteria, first aid, and various ailments. Meanwhile, they breathe an atmosphere filled with the dust just raised by an old-fashioned broom, use not infrequently



Ancient landmark close to state capitol. School could be eliminated through consolidation

a common dipper, and resort to filthy and unsanitary outhouses.

All the problems of instruction are complicated in the one-room school. Before good instruction can be generally expected in such schools the state must plan a simple course of study, with alternating classes, so that the number of classes may be reduced. This course of study should not be copied from city schools, but must be adapted to the education of country children under rural conditions. It may also be found necessary to limit to less than seven the grades of work to be covered in the one-room schools. At all events, classes above the seventh grade formed for the convenience of two or three advanced pupils must be abandoned. Twenty-five to thirty-five daily recitations—the average in the one-room rural school—are more than can be well handled. If eight or ten more “classes” are added for the benefit of two or three advanced pupils, the teacher’s energies are so scattered that no one gets proper attention in anything. Provision must be made for these older pupils in consolidated schools.

On the one hand, therefore, the one-room school must be simplified and better organized; on the other, wherever possible, one-room schools should be consolidated so that a larger body of pupils may be properly graded, and better equipment, better teachers, and better accommodations provided for them. There is not a county in Maryland in which the number of one-room schools could not thus be greatly reduced. Something

has indeed already been accomplished in this direction. In Prince George County the Baden Agricultural High School, organized in 1911, took the place of two one-room schools and now draws the older pupils from eight others. The enrolment for the entire region has increased, and the attendance, particularly of the older children, improved. A better school spirit has developed, and the community is inordinately proud of its consolidated school. Similar results have also been achieved at the Sparks Agricultural High School, Baltimore County. Howard, Montgomery, Caroline, and a few others also furnish examples. But consolidation is not yet an active state policy.

Instruction in the colored schools is, as one would expect, distinctly inferior to that in the white schools. There is, however, a movement well under way which is contributing to improvement. Through the aid of the state at least one central industrial school has been established in each of sixteen counties. In these central schools industrial instruction is confined in the main to the older children, comprising for girls sewing and cooking, and for the boys woodwork. The girls make some of their own clothes and cook, while the boys make from wood simple household articles and furniture. The instruction is exceedingly practical, usually of good quality, giving girls a training in home duties and boys some skill with tools and an appreciation of manual labor.

Under the direction of the colored supervisor industrial instruction is being gradually introduced into the rural and village schools of counties possessing a central



Consolidated Agricultural High School



School van drawn by oxen

school of the type just described. In the lower grades children do paper-cutting and basketry; the girls have simple sewing, and the boys whittling. In the upper grades the girls learn plain sewing and dressmaking and, in a few schools, some cooking. While the boys in the one-room schools are handicapped for lack of a shop and tools, they are, nevertheless, doing some woodwork, making articles for the home and doing repairs about the schoolhouse; in one case they have drained the school grounds, repaired the sidewalk and fence, and painted the school building.

Instruction in the high schools is but little better than that in the elementary schools and is in general characterized by the same defects.¹ For, like the elementary school teacher, the high school teacher lacks proper professional training; and, like the elementary school, the high school, despite its recent development, is hampered by tradition.

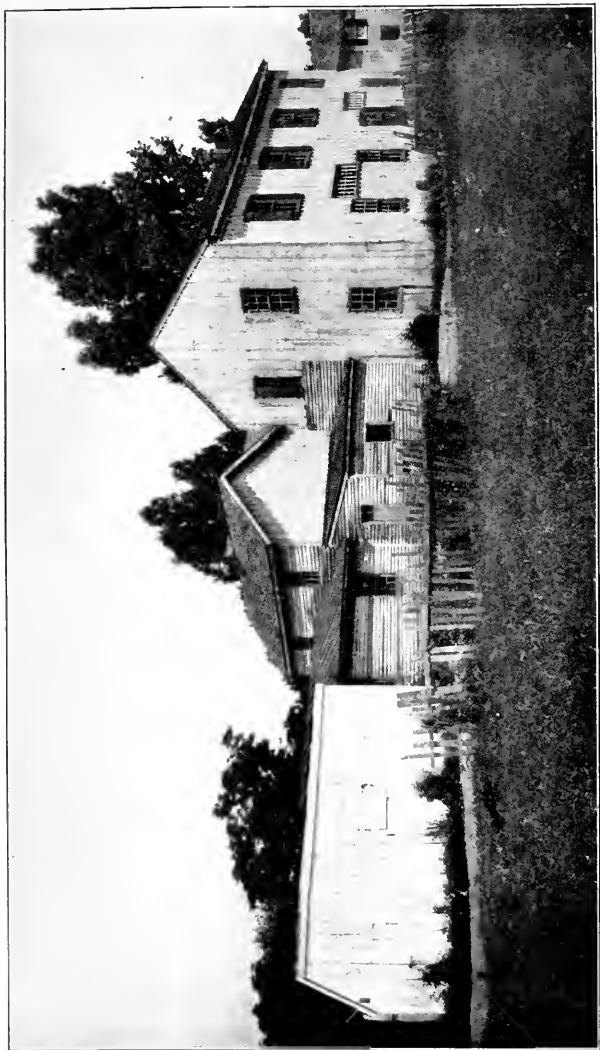
The public high schools of Maryland have grown rapidly since 1905. The first list of accredited high schools, carrying out acceptably the course of study prescribed by the state, made up in 1905, included only 28 schools with an enrolment of 2,049 children and 88 teachers. Since then an entire year has been added to the course and the state standards have become somewhat more exacting; nevertheless, there were in 1914, 65

¹High schools were visited in every county of the state having them. In addition to conferences with principals and teachers, classwork was carefully observed in fifty schools.

accredited high schools enrolling 5,500 pupils and employing 221 teachers. Not a few of these schools are the outgrowths of old academies.

In this transition from the academy to the public high school the aims and methods of the academy were unfortunately very largely carried over. The old academy, though it rendered a worthy service in its day, was a "select" school, privately controlled, which prepared for college and gave to those not going farther a "cultural" education. Handicapped by this tradition, too many of the new high schools promote "cultural" education and preparation for college. Latin and mathematics continue to dominate the curriculum. There is, of course, no reason why children who desire to study Latin should be prevented from doing so. But in Maryland they are practically compelled to study Latin, though, legally, the subject is not compulsory. In the main, it is so poorly taught, that, aside from the waste of time and energy, most students must be contracting from it habits of thought and expression that are a real handicap.

Hardly better is the plight of mathematics. The state requirements are not unusual, including algebra through quadratics and plane geometry. But few high schools are content with this; the majority offer, besides, advanced algebra, solid geometry, and trigonometry. Whether all high school pupils, both boys and girls, should be required to study algebra and geometry, is sufficiently doubtful; indeed an increasingly influential body of educators would answer in the negative. But



Colored Industrial School

as to advanced algebra, solid geometry, and trigonometry there is no doubt whatsoever. To constrain students in numbers to take these subjects is simply unpardonable. They have long since been dropped from the high school course of many of our largest cities and they should be eliminated in Maryland, too. The curriculum in common use should be so formulated that the majority of high school pupils will no longer be forced to devote to these two studies from two-fifths to a half of their entire school time, to the neglect of every other line of legitimate secondary instruction.

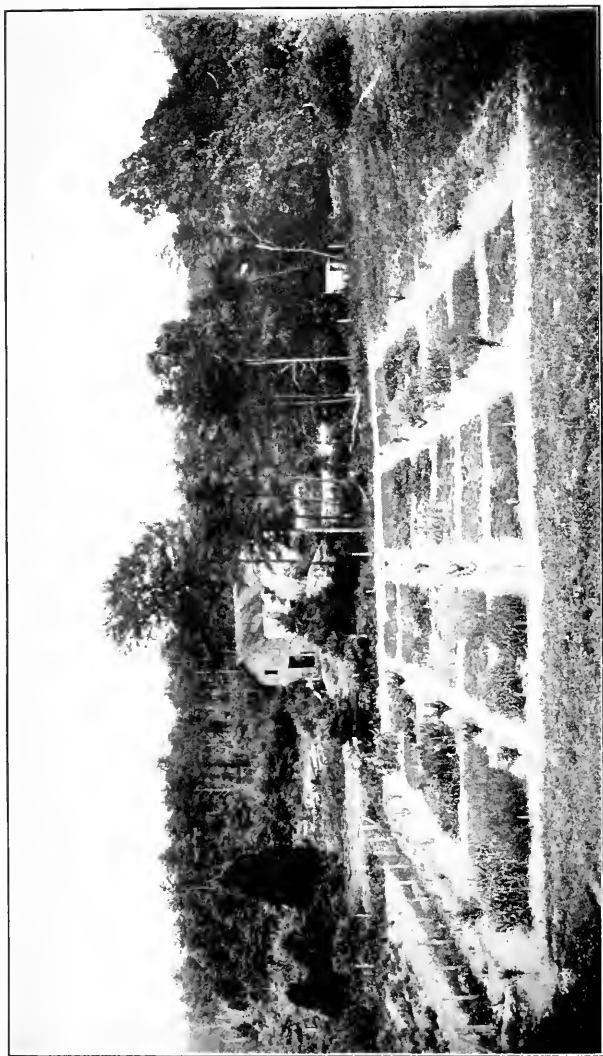
The remainder of the curriculum need not detain us long. Something like one-half of the school day is available for all other subjects—English, history, civics, science, etc. The instruction in English is extremely meagre, consisting, as a rule, largely of grammar, rhetoric, and the learning of unimportant data in connection with the study of selected pieces—a futile and depressing expenditure of energy; English history occupies a place in the first year, while American history is reviewed in the fourth; the study of civics is a memory grind not calculated to give the student any insight into community activities and needs, or to develop a sense of civic pride and social responsibility.

The instruction in science is also unsatisfactory. Outside of general science in the first year, little is ordinarily attempted, only the stronger schools regularly offering courses in biology, physics, and chemistry. Few schools have regular science teachers; as a rule, the subject is

taught by teachers whose interest lies elsewhere. Accordingly, it happens that classes complete the work in general science and even in biology without making an excursion or performing an experiment. Even in laboratory sciences like chemistry and physics pupils are seldom required to keep orderly notebooks. The majority of the high schools lack adequate scientific equipment; the "laboratory" may be set up in a hall alcove or in a basement room. Naturally enough, there is in most high schools little interest in science on the part of either teachers or pupils.

From what point of view should the curricula of these schools be developed? In the rural sections of Maryland the centre of interest is in farming, stock-raising, fruit-growing, dairying, poultry-culture, and the like. Through these and kindred activities country people make their living; in them the country children of tomorrow will find employment. A country high school must, indeed—like a city high school—teach literature, history, and civics. But, in addition, on the boy's side, the curriculum should stress applied science, industry, and agriculture; while, on the girl's side, it should emphasize domestic art and such studies as equip women to become intelligent home makers. The rural high school needs little commerce with ancient languages and college entrance requirements. The mass of students who do not go to conventional colleges must not be sacrificed for the few who do.

Again, the prosperity of the small city—and all of the



Farm at Agricultural High School

cities of Maryland, with one exception, are small—depends upon business and productive industry. The oncoming generation will, for the most part, be engaged in retail trade and in manufacture. Judging from what goes on in most of the city high schools, one would infer that their students are all going to college with the ultimate expectation of leading either a professional life or a life of leisure. There is scarcely anything in the instruction to suggest that the home town offers fields of activity worthy of ambitious young people. The small city high schools must perhaps prepare for college, but their primary aim should be to give young people an education which, while contributing to personal enjoyment and refinement, prepares at the same time for the conditions of life that they will meet. By so doing, the high school will do most for ninety-five out of every hundred students in attendance.

Fortunately, a beginning in the right direction has already been made. A few of the first-group high schools and something less than one-half the second-group high schools pay some attention to agriculture and rural life. Two decidedly successful examples of this endeavor are the rural high schools already mentioned at Sparks and Baden. The remainder of the second-group schools, to say nothing of the first-group, still continue to furnish country children with a cityfied education which closes their eyes to the opportunities of country life, and tends powerfully to drive them toward the towns.

In contrast, the efforts of the state in the direction of

commercial courses have met with unusual success. There are now in all first-group high schools, save one, and in 17 of the second-group, business departments offering two years of instruction in commercial branches; their total enrolment in 1914 was 692 pupils. Two factors account for this development: first, the desire of young people for a "useful" education; second, the desire to escape the grind of Latin and mathematics. For these commercial departments there is a legitimate place in most first-group schools. It is, however, questionable whether many second-group schools, rural as they are in their environment, should offer elaborate commercial courses. Up to the present time there has been little demand for a two-year commercial course in these second-group schools, most of the commercial departments in them being maintained at relatively heavy expense for the accommodation of from 5 to 10 pupils. In the second place, commercial training once more turns country-bred boys and girls away from the farm to become job seekers in the cities.

There is, besides, in both first- and second-group high schools a marked tendency to increase out of all proportions the amount of work demanded in the commercial courses. The state course of study wisely requires commercial students to devote a fourth to a half of their time to general high school work. But in a number of both first- and second-group high schools, the prescribed hours of instruction in the commercial branches now absorb almost the entire time of the student, to the neglect of studies



Art at state-aided high school

which contribute to general intelligence and breadth of view. Owing to its inadequate staff, the State Department of Education has not been in position to know in detail what the high schools are doing. If the department is reorganized, it will be enabled to keep in touch with the situation, and it should have the power in its discretion to disapprove the establishment of special departments.

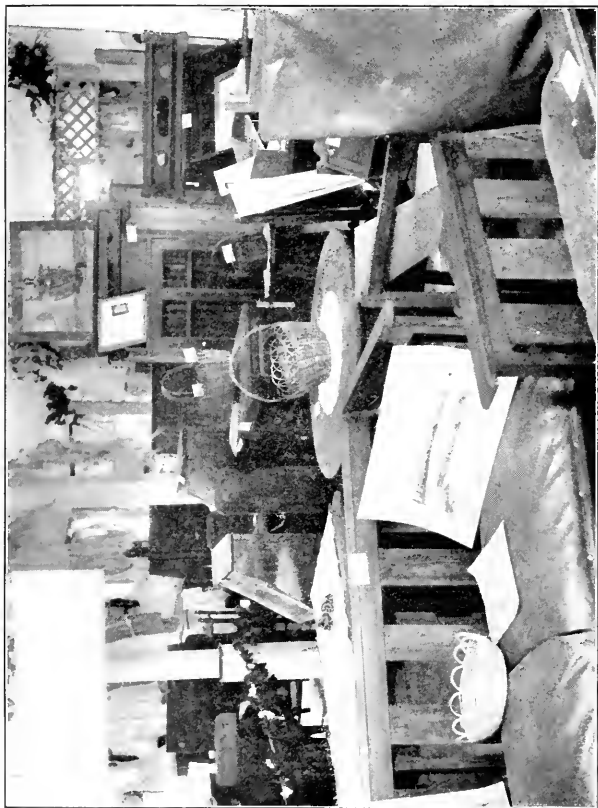
In the distribution of state aid to secondary schools, consistent encouragement has been given to manual training and domestic science. As a result, these branches are more widely taught in Maryland than in most states. While there is still much to be desired, children do at least get an opportunity to acquire practical information and to gain skill in the making of real things; moreover, they obtain a certain amount of relief from the routine of conventional academic study.

The situation in the four-year state-aided high school is, therefore, not altogether unpromising. Meanwhile, aside from the regular high schools, there are many one- or two-room schools that attempt one or more years of high school instruction. Further, a few schools—such, for example, as that of Damascus, Montgomery County, and some old academies such as that at Vienna, Dorchester County,¹ specially legislated into high school status,

¹This school has lately come under the control of the County Board of Education; but when the transfer was made, the academy trustees, while obligating the County Board to continue the so-called high school department, retained the right to appoint the principal. Though obviously illegal, this arrangement is by no means uncommon even in state-aided high schools—it is found, for example, in the high school of Bel Air, Harford County. It should be absolutely prohibited.

attempt high school work with a single teacher. The state ought to realize that high school work of this kind is simply counterfeit. Only through school consolidation and the transportation of pupils can genuine high school opportunities be brought within reach of all the children of Maryland. The amount of instruction that may be offered in one-, two-, and three-roomschools should therefore be strictly limited, and the State Department of Education must be so equipped that the law can be enforced.

A single paragraph may summarize our estimate of teaching in the public schools of Maryland. We have found the State Department ineffective, largely because it lacks the necessary staff; we have found the county organization ineffective because of politics, the absence of trained officials, and the low standards of teacher training. How could teaching be generally good under these conditions? Maryland gets precisely the kind and quality of teaching which our previous study would lead us to expect. It will improve teaching when it improves the conditions responsible for it—not before, and in no other way.

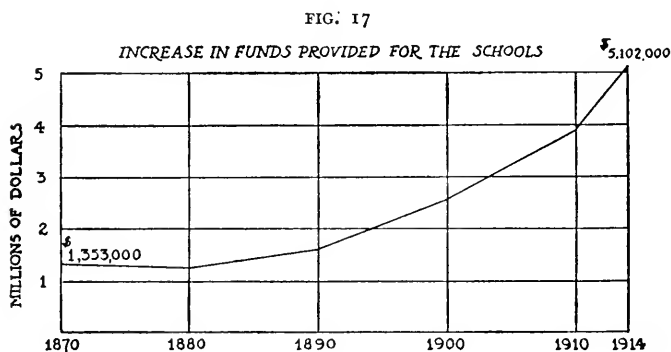


Work of high school students

IX. FINANCE

FOR the results which we have just described, what does Maryland pay? The education furnished is mostly poor: is it also cheap? Or does the state pay high for what it gets? These and some related questions will be answered in the course of the present chapter.

An increasing amount of money is being annually raised in Maryland for public education. The total amount raised in the entire state, including the city of Baltimore, was in 1870 in round terms a million dollars; in 1914, five millions. (Fig. 17.) These amounts cover



all the money received during the current year, irrespective of whether it went into new buildings, repairs, teachers' salaries, text-books, or school supplies.¹

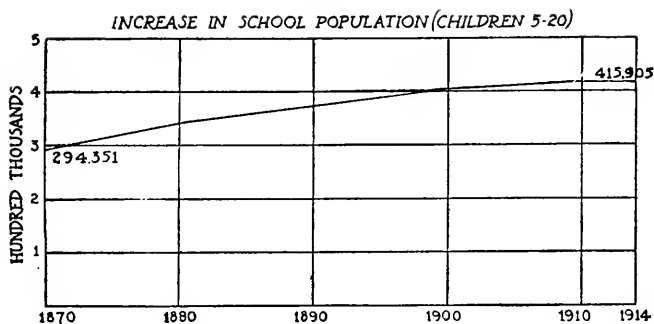
Does this mean that the state is paying more per individual child? In 1870 there were practically 300,000 children of school age² in the state; in 1910 there were something over 400,000; the exact increase was 41 per cent. (Fig. 18.) Hence, while school population has increased 41 per cent., the total school fund has increased 277 per cent. Per child of school age (Fig. 19) the amount available has therefore risen from \$4.59 in 1870 to \$12.26 in 1914, an increase of 171 per cent.³

¹It would be instructive to compare the financial support of the schools in Maryland with that of other states, but it is almost impossible to secure reliable data for such comparisons. Indeed it was only with great difficulty that data on the financial support of the schools of Maryland have been brought together. It was impossible to use the reported expenditures as found in the annual reports of the State Board of Education, because these include payments of current loans, and because of the differences, especially some years back, between the reported expenditures by the several county boards and their receipts as reported by the State Controller. These are samples of the difficulties encountered in compiling accurate financial data for Maryland. Similar revision would have to be made of the published reports of other states, if comparisons are to be trustworthy. One general statement may, however, be made: Maryland is one of the states which make very large state contributions for local educational purposes.

²In Chapter VII (Enrolment and Attendance) we used as a basis children between 6 and 18 years of age, though the law regards all persons between 5 and 20 as of school age. A defect in the Federal Census compels us in the present chapter to use the number of persons between 5 and 20 years old in computing per capita cost and expenditure. The inconsistency is not, however, of any practical importance. For the outcome of this chapter would not be different, even if we had used 6 to 18 as the basis of computation.

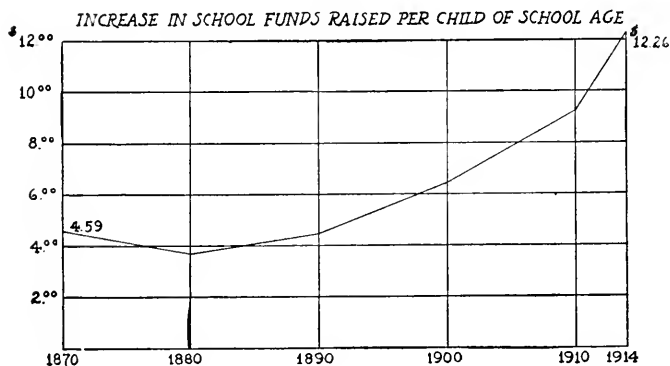
³The amount available declined in 1880, but has risen steadily ever since.

FIG. 18

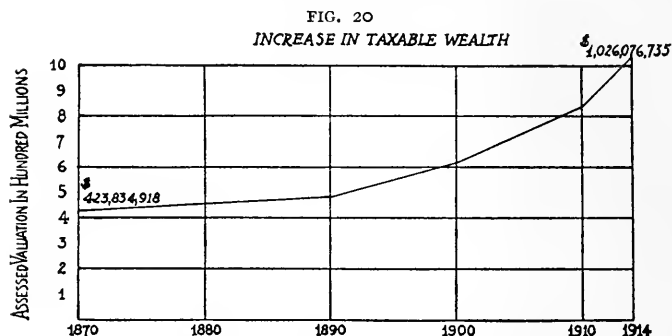


Meanwhile, the taxable wealth of the state has also increased. Has the increased liberality of the state simply kept pace with its increasing wealth, or is Maryland really making relatively larger sacrifices for public education?

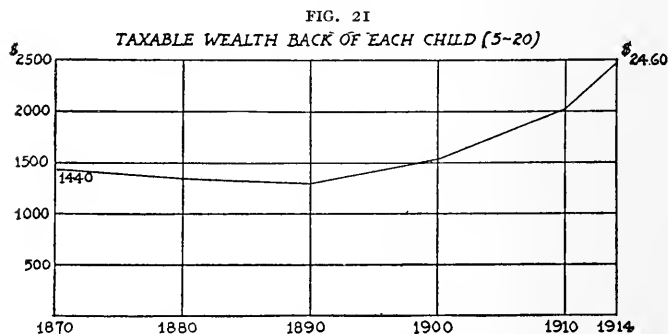
FIG. 19



The taxable wealth of the state rose from 423 millions in 1870 to a billion in 1914. (Fig. 20.) Back of each school child in 1870 there was taxable property valued at



\$1,440; back of each child in 1914 there was taxable property valued at \$2,460. (Fig. 21.) Every hundred dollars of taxable property contributed twenty-six cents

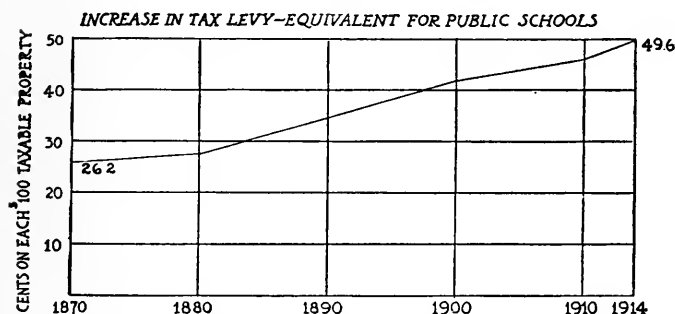


to education in 1870; every hundred dollars of taxable property contributed forty-nine cents to education in

1914. (Fig. 22.) There are, then, more children to be educated in Maryland than there were; there is more wealth to be drawn upon; and every dollar of wealth pays almost twice as much as it paid in 1870.

Education is, however, not merely a question of how much is spent; much depends on the different purposes served by a given expenditure. Fully to understand the

FIG. 22

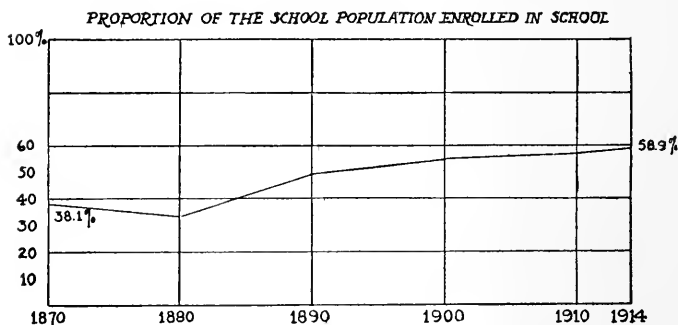


public school system of Maryland during the period we are considering, that is, from 1870 to 1914, we ought to know the amount of money devoted to each of several important items—to erecting new buildings, to repairing old ones, to maintaining the plant, to administration, supervision, teachers' salaries, text-books, supplies, etc. A proper system of school accounting would supply such information; unfortunately, the older systems, among them the system still employed in Maryland, do not. For this reason, one of the improvements needed in the State Department is the introduction of an up-to-date

system of school accounts. In lieu, therefore, of detailed knowledge which would enable us to make a critical and comparative study of expenditure and results, we must content ourselves with the consideration and comparison of total amounts spent from year to year.

We have thus far spoken in terms of the entire school population; i. e., all persons between 5 and 20 years of age. It is, of course, obvious that this means the nominal rather than the actual school population, for children below 6 or above 18 should be practically eliminated from consideration. As a matter of fact, in 1870, only 38 children out of each 100 between 5 and 20 years of age attended school, and in 1914 only 59. (Fig. 23.) Our

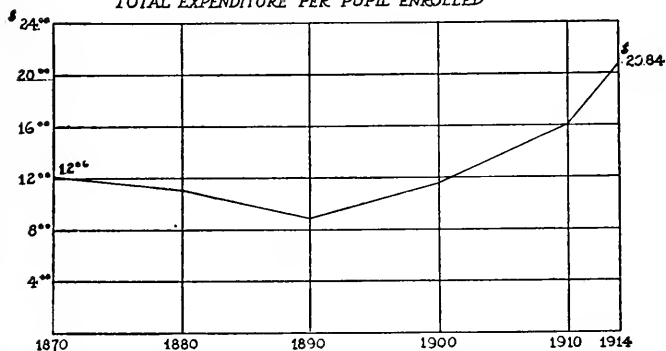
FIG. 23



computation of per capita expenditure on the basis of the legal school population, therefore, throws little light on the actual per capita expenditure; for the expenditure on each child of legal school age who really attends school is

much larger than the amount of money raised per child of the school population. We saw a moment ago that the amount raised per child of school population in 1870 was \$4.59; the amount really expended per pupil enrolled in that year was \$12.06. (Fig. 24.) The amount raised per pupil of school age in 1914 was \$12.26; the amount

FIG. 24
TOTAL EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL ENROLLED



really spent for each pupil in 1914 was \$20.84. That is, between 1870 and 1914 the actual expenditure for each pupil in school attendance increased from \$12.06 to \$20.84—an increase of 73 per cent.¹

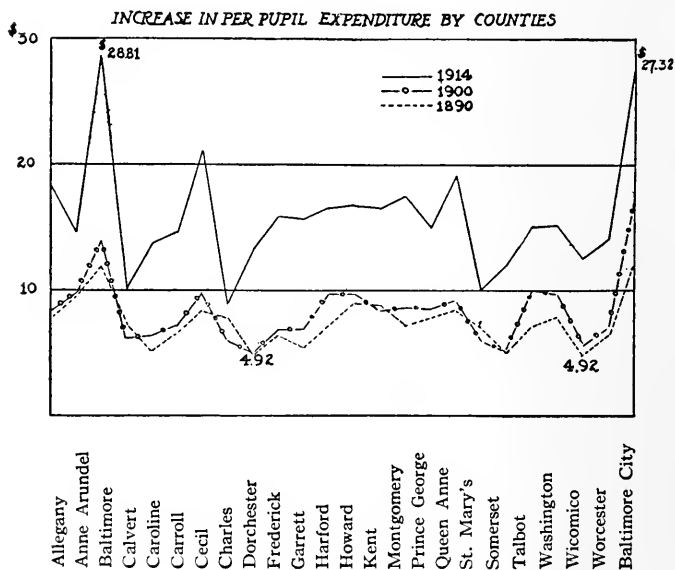
So far, then, taking the state as a whole, it is only fair

¹Figure 24 shows a drop between 1870 and 1890. This decrease was due to the relatively small increase during these three decades in the total amount raised for the schools (Fig. 17), to the relatively rapid increase, during the same period, in the school population (Fig. 18), and to the increase in the proportion of the school population taking advantage of the opportunities afforded by the schools (Fig. 23). The rapid increase in per-pupil expenditure since 1890, the amount almost doubling, is due more especially to the increased funds provided for the support of the schools.

to say that Maryland, as a state, has, since 1870, not only provided a larger total sum for public education, but that it has provided a larger sum per pupil. The state had thus a better right to expect good schools in 1914 with a per-pupil expenditure of \$20.84 than in 1890 with a per-pupil cost of \$9.08, or in 1870 with a per-pupil cost of \$12.06. Can the same be said of the counties, taken separately?

The wealth of Maryland is unequally distributed. The increase in school funds has not, therefore, been entirely uniform. Between 1890 and 1900 (Fig. 25) the

FIG. 25

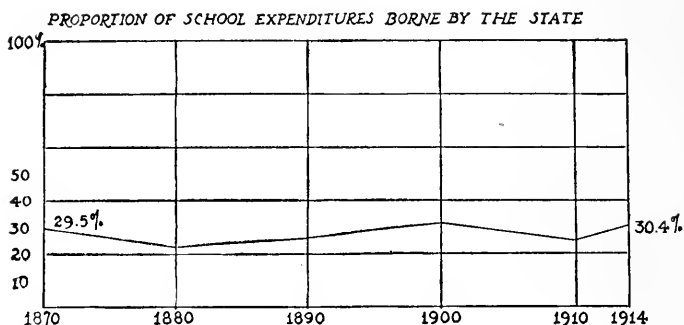


increase in expenditure per pupil enrolled was nowhere considerable; in Calvert, Charles, and St. Mary's counties there was a decline. From 1900 to 1914, however, every county in the state, without exception, increased its per capita expenditures, some of them very largely. The lowest percentage of increase—that of Charles County—was about 50 per cent.; the highest Dorchester County, 160 per cent. Of the 23 counties of the state, 13 more than doubled their per-pupil outlay between 1900 and 1914,¹ with the result that existing disparities were still further emphasized. Thus, in 1890, with per-pupil expenditure varying in the counties from \$4.92 to \$11.97, there was less disparity in respect to educational advantages than in 1914, when \$9.17 was spent upon each pupil in Charles County and \$28.81 upon each pupil in Baltimore County. (Fig. 25.) These enormous differences are, of course, pregnant with consequences to the individual child.

As we have seen, public education in Maryland, as in other states, is paid for by both state and county. From 1870 up to the present time the counties of Maryland and the city of Baltimore have raised annually about 70 per cent. of the money expended for education; the state has contributed about 30 per cent. (Fig. 26.) While the relative proportion of all school expenditures borne by the state has not materially changed, the total amount distributed to the counties has risen from \$458,000 in 1870 to

¹Allegany, Baltimore, Caroline, Carroll, Cecil, Dorchester, Frederick, Garrett, Montgomery, Queen Anne, Somerset, Wicomico, and Worcester.

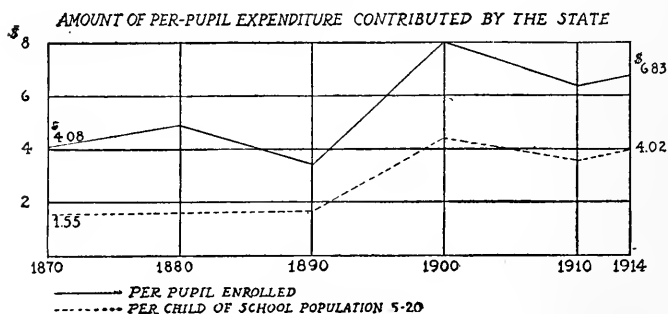
FIG. 26



\$1,675,000 in 1914, representing an increase both in the amount provided by the state per child of the school population and per pupil of the school enrolment. (Fig. 27.)

The funds distributed by the state are derived from several sources. Far the largest factor is the state school tax, which, ranging from 10 cents on each \$100 in 1870 to 17 cents in 1915, is levied against all the taxable prop-

FIG. 27



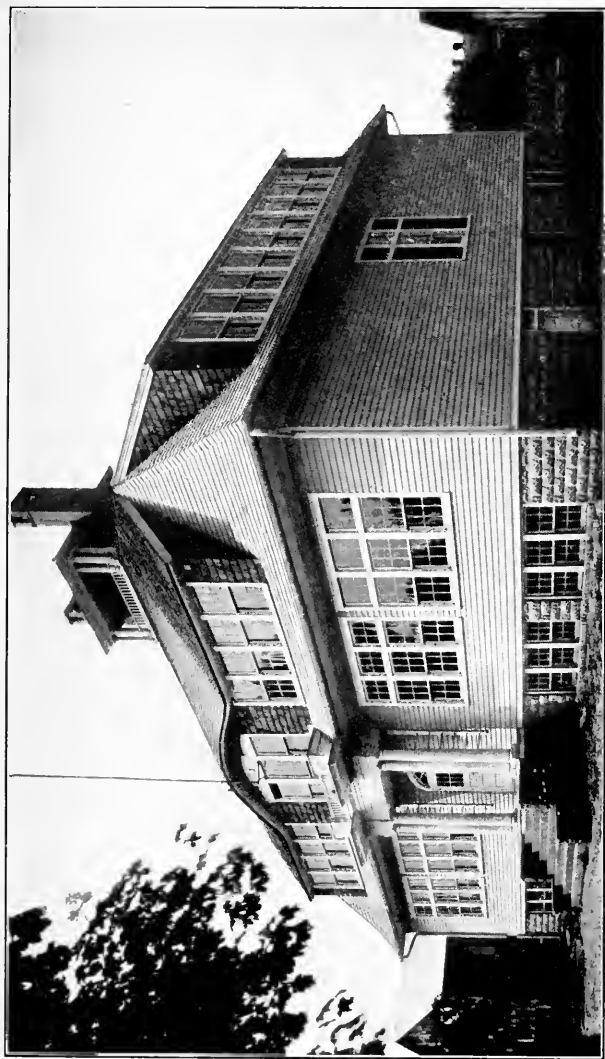
erty of the state and produced, in 1914, \$1,654,000. Out of this fund are paid in the first instance the expenses of the State Department of Education, the maintenance of the three State Normal Schools, Teachers' Retirement allowances,¹ the income on the Surplus Revenue Fund, the special aid to high schools and colored industrial schools, and the Free Text-book Fund. After meeting these charges, there remained in 1914 \$1,305,000 which was divided between the counties and the city of Baltimore on the basis of the population between 5 and 20 years of age.

Almost every state in the Union has at one time or another apportioned its general school fund on the basis of school population, as Maryland still does. But the method is in process of abandonment throughout the country, and for obvious reasons. Education is, we have said, a state function. The state supports it liberally because the state desires that all children should enjoy substantial educational advantages. If the matter were left to counties and districts, the disparities in educa-

¹Provision was made, in 1902, for a straight-out annual pension of \$200 to be paid all teachers, irrespective of financial ability, who, having reached the age of sixty, had taught in the schools of the state twenty-five years, and were disqualified for further service. Within three years it became evident that the financial burden involved was more than the state could afford. The law was accordingly amended to provide that pensions should be paid to those only who were "without other means of comfortable support." On this basis, the sum required increased to \$38,000 in 1914, the total number of teachers drawing pensions being 161. The law has been administered with great care, but the entire question of teachers' pensions needs to be re-studied. The present provision, while relieving certain individuals, cannot be regarded as a final solution. There is good reason to believe that no non-contributory pension system on a large scale is either wise or feasible.

tional opportunity would be intolerable. The state's contribution must therefore be employed to equalize conditions. Do what the commonwealth will, this highly desirable object cannot be fully attained; that is, however, only the stronger reason for doing the best possible.

Apportionment on the basis of population aggravates inequalities instead of mitigating them. Certain counties are able to provide good schools quite apart from state aid. Unquestionably, they should not for that reason be altogether passed over; but they cannot fairly complain if the adoption of a more intelligent basis of distribution somewhat reduces their share. Again, the rural counties being more thinly settled, a single teacher instructs fewer children in the country than in the city. The cost of instruction is therefore higher in the rural districts; apportionment on the basis of school population alone is therefore unfair to those sections that are most in need of help. Finally, the Federal Census on the basis of which the apportionment is made is actually correct only for the year in which it is taken; a considerable error may occur during all the other years of the decade. For example, according to the Federal Census, Baltimore County had, in 1910, 39,306 children between the ages of 5 and 20; the distribution of the state school tax was, however, made in 1910 on the basis of her having 26,290 children, meaning a loss to the county in a single year of approximately \$24,000. Contrariwise, while the census of 1910 gave Queen Anne 5,924 children between 5 and 20, the



Tri-County High School. Paid for in part by special state appropriation of \$4,000

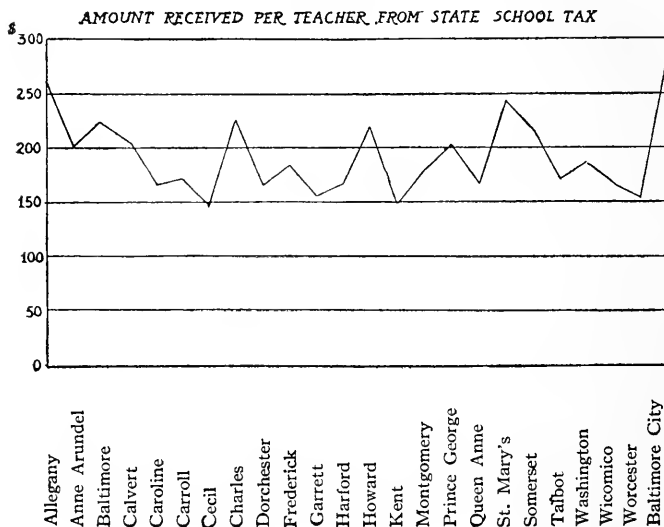
county was credited in the division of the state school tax in that year with 6,042 children, thereby receiving from the state \$3,500 more than the actual number of children at the time entitled her to. Such inequalities in the distribution of the state school tax are unavoidable so long as the Federal Census is relied upon to provide the basis of distribution.

The counties need funds mainly to pay the salaries of the teachers; a "fair" distribution would therefore tend to make it equally feasible for all counties to employ at decent salaries the number of teachers really required. That is, if distribution on the basis of school population worked equitably, the counties would receive approximately equal amounts per teacher. As a matter of fact, the amounts received per teacher vary from \$277 in Baltimore City to \$147 per teacher in Cecil County. No two counties receive the same sum. (Fig. 28.) Distribution on the basis of school population is therefore distinctly unfair. A more equitable basis is sorely needed.

A second fund, known as the Common Free School Fund, is composed of three items. The first item consisted of an investment of \$278,000 derived from taxes upon state bank stock, collected in the first instance in 1816, and yielding in 1914 an income of \$6,000. The original intention was to distribute annually to the counties in equal shares the entire amount of taxes collected. It, however, so happened that for years certain counties had no schools upon which they could properly spend

their money. Their unexpended share was accordingly left with the State Treasurer and held for them as a permanent investment. The amounts now so held vary from \$21,400 in the name of Frederick County, to \$4,300 for St. Mary's. Baltimore City, Allegany, Charles, Cal-

FIG. 28



vert, and Garrett counties do not now participate in this fund, they having used in times long past their full share in the current support of their schools. Hence, while the other counties now receive from this fund annually from \$150 to \$750, nothing at all is received by these four counties and the city of Baltimore.

The second item of the Common Free School Fund consisted of \$229,000, having as its origin \$169,000 returned by the United States Government in 1858 to Maryland as interest on money advanced by her to the National Government during the War of 1812. The income, amounting to \$10,400 in 1914, is distributed annually to the counties on the basis of their representation in the General Assembly. From the educational standpoint, this basis of distribution is arbitrary. For example, Calvert County in 1914 had three representatives with 4,119 children between 5 and 20, whereas Queen Anne, with the same number of representatives, had 5,924, or almost a third more children to provide for. The apportionment of school funds upon the basis of the number of representatives in the General Assembly thus disregards the main purpose of a state school fund, viz., the equalization of school advantages, since it takes no account of the number of children to be educated or of the disparity between the several counties in respect to their financial ability to support schools.

The final item of the Common Free Fund is known as the Surplus Revenue Fund. It is the part of the surplus revenue, distributed in 1837 by the United States, and in Maryland set apart for the benefit of the schools. Unfortunately, as in so many other states, the original amount was spent; the state, however, obligated itself to provide an annual income equal to 5 per cent. interest. Until 1910 this income amounting to \$34,069 was derived from indirect taxes and paid from the General

Treasury; since then it has been deducted from the money raised from the state school tax, and for this reason, the Surplus Revenue Fund may be said to be virtually lost to the schools.

A somewhat complicated plan was devised for the distribution of this income. In the first place, the sum of \$2,000 was set aside for the indigent blind. The remainder was then divided into two equal parts, one part being distributed to the counties and Baltimore City on the basis of white population, the other divided equally among the counties and the city of Baltimore. Once more sound principles are ignored. Of the two methods of distribution employed, the former is unfair to counties with a large colored population, the latter does nothing to equalize educational facilities.

Next in importance is the so-called "Academic" Fund, not, as its name would appear to indicate, a productive investment, but merely a regular annual appropriation made from the General Treasury for the encouragement of secondary education. These appropriations began in 1798 when donations were first made to quasi-private county academies; by 1831 it had become the fixed policy of the state to appropriate \$1,200 a year to each county, irrespective of size and needs. Where county academies independent of the public school authorities were maintained, the appropriation went to the trustees of these academies; if there were more than one, the appropriation was divided. If there was no academy with its separate board of trustees, the appropriation went to the public

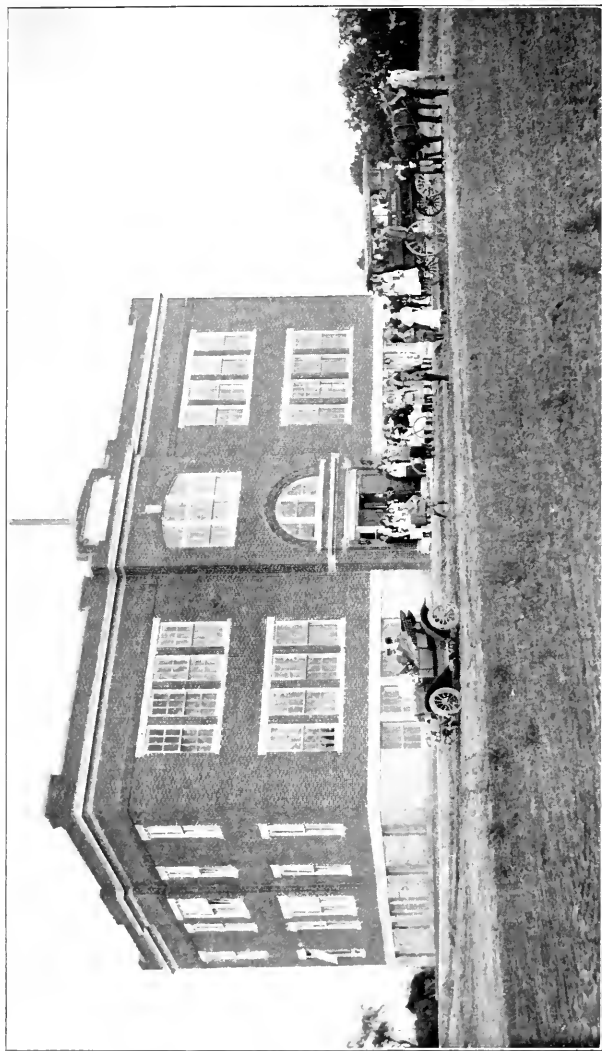
school authorities. In 1914 \$26,150 was distributed by the state in this way.

In the distribution of the academic fund every principle of sound educational finance is violated. Originally—at least subsequently to 1831—the counties were to share alike, itself an unsound method of procedure. Somewhat later an unequal distribution was brought about; but the inequalities were not dictated or suggested by sound principle. Wicomico, for example, with an enrolment of 5,888, received, in 1914, \$2,400, whereas Carroll, with an enrolment of 6,697, secured only \$200. But such inequalities are, after all, preferable to outright abuse as evidenced in the following examples:

Washington Academy, located in Somerset County, some three miles from Princess Anne, was erected by private subscription in 1777. From 1798 until the present time an annual donation has been made from the "Academic Fund" to the trustees of this school, varying from \$600 to \$800. For three-quarters of a century Washington Academy was the centre of higher education in Somerset, but the doors of the building were closed about 1864 and never again opened for educational purposes. For a half century thereafter bats found a friendly shelter in the attic and vagrants in its lower rooms. Still, during the entire half century of its non-existence, the Trustees of Washington Academy received the annual appropriation from the state, the accumulated amount of which, or as much of it as was recovered, including the interest, amounted by 1904 to over \$12,000. With

\$12,000 in hand the academy trustees erected in 1904 in Princess Anne, upon a lot purchased with state funds in 1844, a modern school building. The building was deeded to the County School Board, but the lot is held by the academy trustees, and this building is to-day the public school of Princess Anne. Thus from funds donated by the state for the encouragement of secondary education, but which were not so currently used and hence should have been cut off, a public school building is erected and presented to Princess Anne. Moreover, by reason of the fact that this appropriation is still made to the Trustees of Washington Academy and applied to the maintenance of the present school, the state is making, through indirection, an annual present of \$600 to Princess Anne.

An even more flagrant abuse of state funds is to be found in connection with Patapsco Academy, Shipley Station, Anne Arundel County. This institution, established in 1837, had dwindled by 1908 to the proportions of a one-room school. Though the building and the grounds occupied for more than twenty years were the property of an individual, and the board of trustees had disappeared altogether, this insignificant private school continued to receive \$400 a year from the treasury of the state of Maryland. In 1908 conditions seemed favorable to the abandonment of this "Academy" and to erection in the neighborhood of a much-needed public school supported and controlled by the County Board of Education. Such was not to be. A bill passed the



Ridgely Agricultural High School Grounds paid for out of state appropriation of \$5,000

General Assembly confiding the future of the "Academy" to a committee named in the law. An appropriation of \$1,200 was provided to purchase in the name of the state the ancient home of the Academy, and in 1910 an additional \$500 was supplied from the General Treasury for repairs and improvements. Two hundred fifty dollars for each of the years 1910 and 1911 were added to provide "courses of lectures on agriculture and its kindred subjects and for hall rent and other expenses." Thus an academy at best conducted for years as a private day school, and having in 1914 a total enrolment of 39 pupils with none above the fifth grade, was rehabilitated at state expense to serve as a private school.

Other instances of abuse may be readily cited. Eight hundred dollars are annually paid by the state of Maryland to Frederick County College, which is no longer in existence, the buildings being rented to Hood College. At Cumberland and at Rockville similar appropriations are used to bolster up obsolete institutions, in immediate proximity to high schools of the first rank capable of taking better care of all the academy students without additional cost; at Vienna, Bel Air, Millington, etc., money from the Academic Fund is employed to bring about private control of public high schools. It is unnecessary to go further. The Academic Fund is in many instances wasted or worse than wasted. When the school finances of the state are reorganized, this money can be put to far more productive use.

There remain to be considered certain special appro-

priations made by the General Assembly for the benefit of local schools. Regardless of the amount of money involved in these special appropriations, the principle—or lack of principle—makes them highly significant. Laws carrying special appropriations were passed, for example, in behalf of the Anne Arundel County Academy in 1900, of Greensboro, Caroline County, in 1904, of Federalsburg, Caroline County, and of Aberdeen in Harford County in 1906, of Patapsco Academy, Anne Arundel County, in 1908.

There is no justification for the bestowal by the legislature of school favors. State educational funds should be and can be distributed on the basis of principle; capricious departures from the rules, whatever they be, tend to log-rolling and other forms of demoralization.

Garrett County is a case in point. In 1902 a special annual appropriation of \$4,000 was deducted from the State School Fund for the benefit of Garrett County on the ground that the resources of the county were not sufficient to enable her to keep her schools open the minimum term of seven and one-half months required by law at that time. When first granted the appropriation was endorsed by the State Board of Education; but in the meantime Garrett has grown in wealth, so that it stands to-day the fourteenth county of the state in the amount of wealth back of each child of the school population. At least eight counties are its inferiors in this respect. Nevertheless, the county continues to receive this special appropriation. To tell the truth, the county has been

injured by this special favor, for it has been successively exempted from most of the progressive school legislation of recent years: the compulsory school attendance law, the minimum salary law, the nine months' school term, and the like.

Garrett County is, however, not the only recipient of such appropriations. Five thousand dollars were appropriated in 1912 to buy land for the Ridgley Agricultural High School of Caroline County, and a like sum was contributed from the State Treasury toward the erection of a public school building at Federalsburg. The same General Assembly gave Caroline, Queen Anne, and Talbot counties, together, \$4,000 to be used in building what is known as the Tri-County High School. Talbot County again in 1914 received \$7,500, in part payment of the cost of erecting a school building at Sudlersville.

All such special appropriations must be strongly condemned. The case is not helped by the pretext that the schools were to do special work in agriculture, for the state, as is well known, already gives a bonus for the teaching of agriculture in high schools; the schools specially favored never contemplated more than is being done in the Boys' High School at Frederick, the Baden Agricultural High School of Prince George County, and the Sparks Agricultural High School of Baltimore County—schools built and supported entirely at county expense. The fact is that the counties wanted schools which could not be provided at local expense without considerable sacrifice. Special appropriations had already

been made for other localities. Why not for these? Political conditions were especially favorable; the local political leaders were enlisted in the enterprise, and the result is a matter of history.

The general question of state aid to local schools must be surveyed from another angle. Let us assume that "favors" are discontinued; upon what terms should the state government render its assistance? Two general policies are in common use. Under the one, the state insists that local authorities, before they receive their full apportionment, comply with certain state requirements with respect to the conduct and management of the schools. Under the second, the state makes its contributions without imposing any particular conditions. Maryland occupies a middle ground.

The bulk of the funds distributed by the state of Maryland to the several counties, and especially of those raised by direct taxation, is intended for the support of the elementary schools. To receive their full apportionment, local authorities are required to keep the schools open at least nine months during the calendar year, and to pay white teachers at least three hundred dollars a year.¹

¹It follows that the minimum school year is nine months. Nine counties have a school year of ten months: Baltimore, Calvert, Caroline, Carroll, Harford, Howard, Kent, Queen Anne's, and Talbot. However, the colored schools do not continue so long nor is the term so uniform. They are open ten months in Baltimore, Harford, and Kent; nine months in Allegany, Carroll, Cecil, and Washington; seven to eight months in Calvert, Charles, Frederick, Garrett, Montgomery, Prince George, and Queen Anne; six to seven months in Caroline, Howard, Talbot, and Worcester; five to six months in Dorchester, St. Mary's, Somerset, and Wicomico, and only four months in Anne Arundel.

Besides, the money provided for free text-books and supplies must be employed exclusively for these purposes. There are no other limitations; the state makes no stipulation as to the kind of superintendent that shall be employed, or his salary, or the quality and the amount of supervision that shall be provided, or the kind of school-houses that shall be built. Nor is there any requirement imposed upon the counties with respect to the amount of money that shall be raised locally to secure the entire state apportionment.

The state follows a different policy in allotting funds to the high schools. Specific conditions must be met if the local authorities are to receive the full aid of the state: a certain number of children must be in attendance, a given number of teachers must be employed, specified salaries paid, and courses of study of a given length and character offered. Under the stimulus of these requirements and the financial assistance conditioned on complying with them, the high schools made more progress within the last five years than during the two preceding decades. Counties must also meet certain requirements in order to secure the special assistance offered by the state in support of colored industrial schools.

Maryland is therefore not passive in the distribution of funds for the support of local schools, but she is by no means as active as some other states or as she herself might well be. The very purpose of levying and distributing a school tax is defeated unless its expenditure

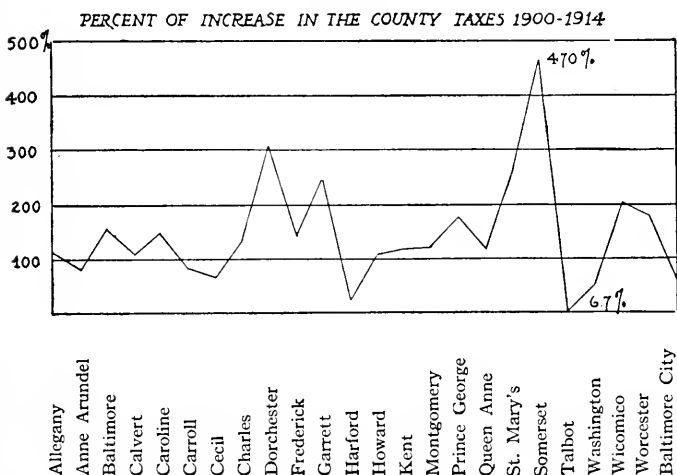
is wisely and efficiently directed. It becomes the state, therefore, to insist upon two points: that every locality should put forth proper effort in its own behalf; and that all school funds should be spent under effective supervision. Maryland has not done this in the past; she is not doing it now. Thousands upon thousands of dollars have been poured into some of the poorer counties without yielding a fair educational return. This waste will continue until the state takes full advantage of the opportunity afforded by the state subsidy to bring about better local support and administration. A new era of progress will open, especially to the elementary schools, when the state lays down specific requirements with respect to the amount of taxes to be raised locally, the kind of schoolhouses to be erected, the preparation of the teachers to be employed, and the qualifications of the superintendent and the supervisors to be engaged, as pre-conditions to receiving state aid, and when, further, the state so organizes the State Department that proper guarantees can be exacted.

In various ways now described the state of Maryland contributed in 1914 \$1,675,201 to public education; meanwhile the total sum spent was \$5,102,448. The difference—that is, \$3,427,247—was raised by the counties and the city of Baltimore by taxes levied on all property. The amount thus raised has everywhere increased, in some counties remarkably. While the increase in Talbot County between 1900 and 1914 was only 6.7 per cent., there was an increase of over 100 per cent. in seven-

teen counties, and in Somerset the rise was as much as 470 per cent. (Fig. 29.)

These increases mean larger, even if not everywhere wholly adequate, expenditure in behalf of the individual child. (Fig. 30.) Somerset County produced in 1890 31 cents per child, of the school population (5-20) in 1914, \$3.57; St. Mary's contributed 37 cents in 1890 and

FIG. 29



\$1.87 in 1914; while the amount raised locally in Baltimore County rose from \$3.24 to \$12.55 in the same period. (Fig. 31.)

The sums just mentioned as raised by county taxation form a widely varying part of the total expenditure on each child. In Charles County, for example, the total

FIG. 30

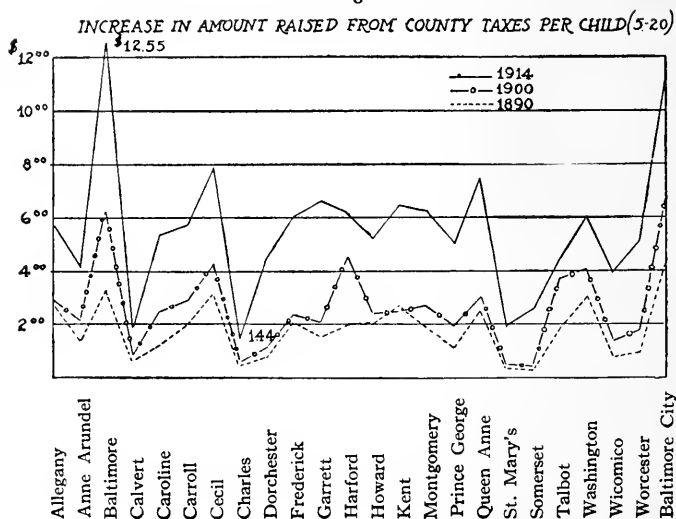
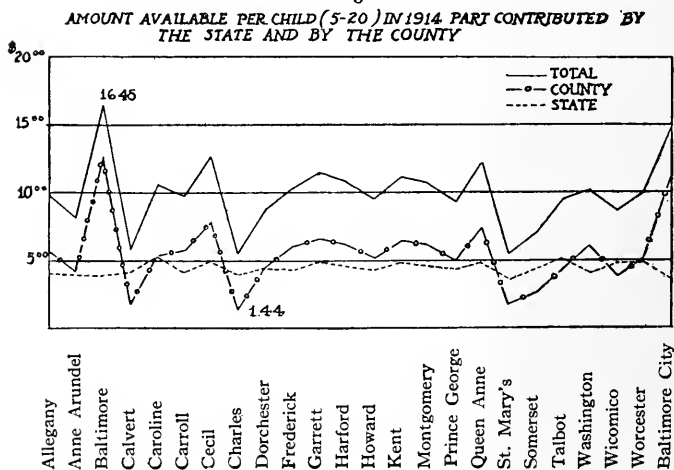
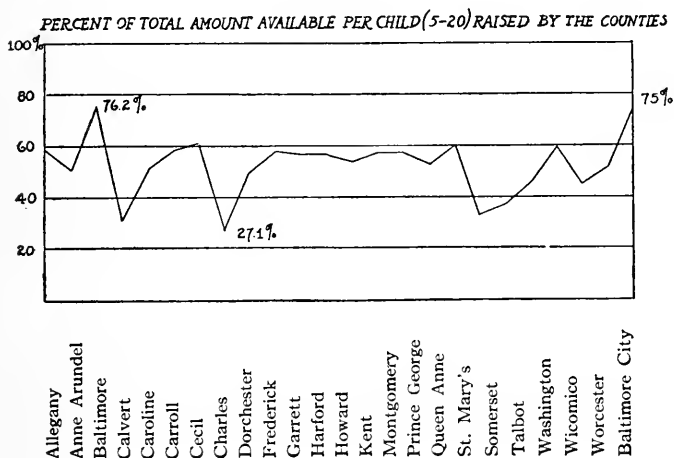


FIG. 31



expenditure per child of the school population (5-20) in 1914 was \$5.34; of this the state contributed \$3.90; the county \$1.44, or 27 per cent. Calvert spent per child \$5.87, but only \$1.85 or 31 per cent. was county money. In contrast, there was available in Baltimore County \$16.45, of which county taxes produced \$12.55 or 76 per cent. (Fig. 32.)

FIG. 32

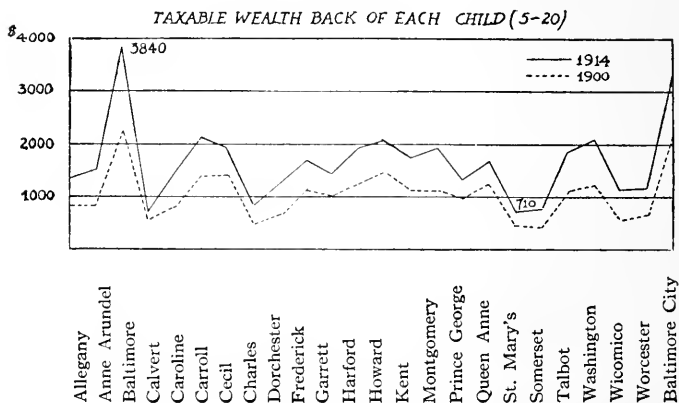


These differences are only partly due to the unequal financial resources of the various counties. A county's ability to support schools is best indicated by the amount of taxable wealth back of each child. So viewed, Baltimore County has, in 1914, \$3,840 back of each child; St. Mary's, \$710. Baltimore County would at the same

tax rate thus raise five or six times as much per child as St. Mary's. (Fig. 33.)

Fully as important is the relative willingness of the several counties to tax themselves for education. The county school tax rate is an excellent index of educational interest.

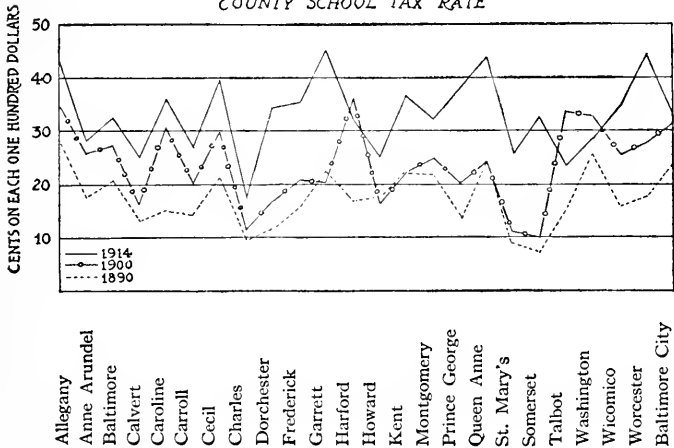
FIG. 33



Between 1890 and 1914 the tax rate went up in every county in the state—that is, every county in Maryland cared more about education in 1914 than in 1890. But just as the counties did not care equally in 1890, so they did not care equally in 1914. The range of disparity is just as great now as it was twenty-five years ago. (Fig. 34.) At the former date Somerset was at the bottom of the list with a rate of 7.4 cents, Allegany at the top with 28.1 cents. In 1914 Charles is lowest, with a rate of 17.2 cents, and Garrett leads with a rate of 45.3 cents.

Whether a high tax rate means relative liberality and a low tax rate relative niggardliness is, however, another

FIG. 34
COUNTY SCHOOL TAX RATE



matter. The counties are not, strictly speaking, directly comparable with one another, because no uniform principle of assessing valuation prevails throughout the state. Hence, one county which makes a high assessment and levies a moderate school tax may be doing more liberally by its schools than another which makes a low assessment and levies an apparently generous school tax. We have already urged that the state should, in order to equalize opportunity, do most for those counties that are least able to help themselves. But such inability cannot be at once inferred from a low assessed valuation. Little

can be done to bring about readjustment until assessments are equalized throughout the state. Meanwhile, as far as tax rate goes and ignoring assessment, eleven counties¹ appear to be making even greater financial sacrifice for their schools than Baltimore County; but the very counties that receive from the state the largest proportion of money spent on local schools, Calvert, Charles, and St. Mary's, are the counties that have the lowest school tax.

While there is, therefore, some reason for encouragement in the increasing local support of the schools, the fact cannot be ignored that the three counties receiving from the state from 60 to 70 per cent. of all the money locally available for education are the very counties that are doing the least for themselves; nor can it be overlooked that rich counties like Carroll, Howard, and Talbot are apparently content to rely upon the state for 40 to 50 per cent. of their school expenditures. The moral is plain: the state cannot afford to dispense its school funds without requiring a minimum school levy on the part of the several counties. Even so, the situation will continue to be more or less chaotic, unless and until property is assessed upon an equitable and uniform basis. For no absolutely fair distribution of the state fund can be made unless the minimum rate upon which the state should insist is levied upon an assessed valuation that really means the same thing in every county.

¹Allegany, Caroline, Cecil, Dorchester, Frederick, Garrett, Kent, Prince George, Queen Anne, Wicomico, and Worcester.

X. IMPROVEMENTS IN THE STATE ORGANIZATION

THE defects in Maryland education to which we have now drawn attention arise partly from inferior organization due to poor laws, partly from inferior personnel, as a result of low educational ideals. Let us admit at the outset that unless the people of Maryland effectually demand that their educational officers should be chosen on the ground of fitness, and that political influence be eliminated, the mere rewriting of the statutes will not work any miracles. The rewriting of the statutes is, however, desirable, because statutes can be so drawn as to assist the people of the state in making their will prevail. On this assumption, what alteration should be made in the statutes dealing with the State Department of Education?

The State Board must be reconstituted, so as to remove it as far as possible from politics and so as to make it independent of the educational agents and institutions with which it may find itself called on to deal. We have already called attention to the conditions which constitute the political menace. At least two of the six appointive members of the Board must be regarded as representatives of the party defeated in the last general

election; worse still, these appointments must be made "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." Again, the Governor is an ex-officio member of the Board and as a rule its presiding officer. To remove the State Board as far as possible from politics, its members should be appointed without regard to parties for long terms—say seven years—confirmation by the Senate should be dispensed with, and the Governor should be deprived of membership.

The Board should, we have further stipulated, be independent of its own agents and of institutions with which it deals. For this reason, the State Superintendent, while privileged to attend its meetings and to participate in its deliberations, should not be a member of the State Board which he serves as secretary and executive officer. Persons connected with educational institutions likely to be at any time affected by actions of the State Board should be ineligible for appointment. For this suggestion there is also the additional reason that a State Board of Education should be essentially a lay body, whose members are chosen because of their interest in education and their knowledge of the temper and aspirations of the people. A body so constituted will not, of course, originate educational policies, decide technical educational questions, or supervise the schools. Theirs, as we have pointed out, is the privilege of representing the people, through bringing the experience of the layman and the layman's point of view to bear upon the policies proposed by their professional agents. It is,

in short, the function of a State Board of Education, not to administer the schools, but to govern under the law, to legislate within its powers, and to pass judgment upon the efficiency of its paid officers.

The functions of the Board thus reorganized should be more clearly formulated. The school laws of Maryland, like those of all states, are the product of frequent and fragmentary legislation, drawn by different persons at different times. They are therefore lacking in consistency. A power allotted to the Board in one instance is in the next given to the State Superintendent; and vice versa. Thus inspection and supervision duties are at times assigned to the Board, while legislative responsibilities are imposed upon the State Superintendent. For example, the State Board is authorized, as we have said, to grant life certificates; the State Superintendent to grant certificates to graduates of institutions outside of Maryland. The Board is empowered to approve the qualifications of regular high school teachers; the State Superintendent, of special high school teachers. The Board is required to pass upon the establishment of colored industrial schools, while the State Superintendent certifies to the controller the right of particular schools to receive state aid after they are established.

The principle on which powers and duties should be allotted to the State Board and to the State Superintendent respectively is simple enough. Matters relating to government and legislation belong to the Board; everything having to do with the execution of the will of

the Board, that is, with inspection, supervision, and administration belongs to the State Superintendent. To illustrate: a lay board cannot be expected to know enough about the technique of professional preparation to pass upon the qualification of regular high school teachers. It is, however, entirely within the Board's scope to determine, with the assistance of the State Superintendent, what these qualifications should be. But the responsibility of actually applying the standards set up is clearly a professional task, belonging to the State Superintendent.

A thoroughgoing revision of both the school laws and the by-laws in strict uniformity with this principle would localize responsibility, facilitate the work of the State Superintendent, and free the Board from the necessity of taking up technical details. The resulting relation would be analogous to that existing between a board of directors and the manager of a business corporation. Like the board of directors, the State Board would establish controlling policies; then, like the business manager, the State Superintendent would be responsible for the conduct of the schools in conformity with these policies.

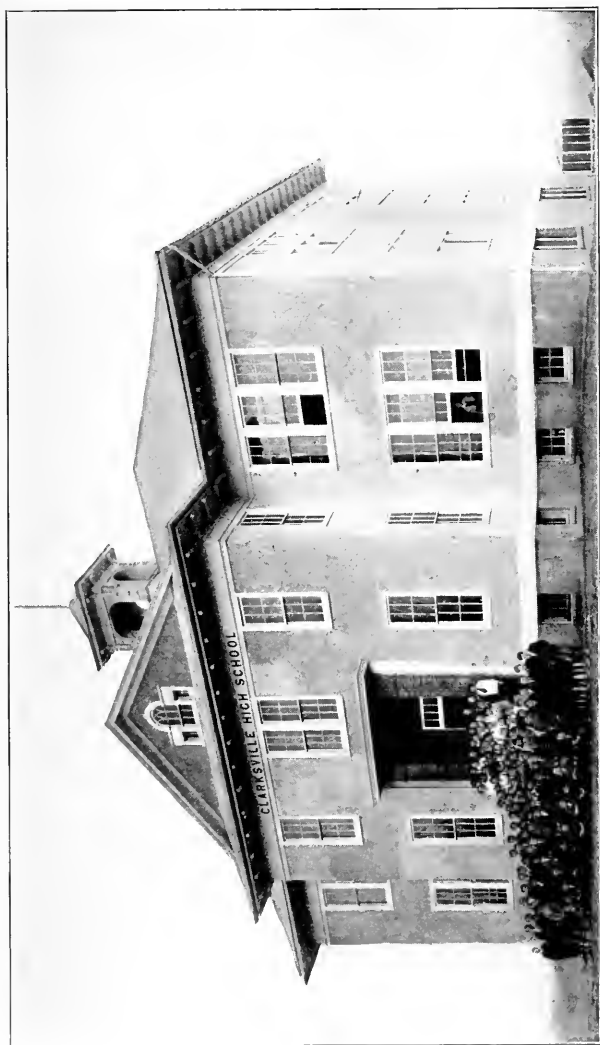
To complete the needed reorganization, the State Board of Education should appoint its own executive officer. A public service body cannot be fairly held responsible for a chief officer not of its own choosing. Besides, the appointment of the State Superintendent by the State Board of Education would remove the state superintendency one step farther from politics.

Finally, the State Board of Education should be empowered, within the limits of its annual appropriation, to fix the salary of the State Superintendent of Schools as well as all the subordinates selected on his recommendation and working under him. The Board supervises the expenditure of millions: can it not be trusted to regulate the pay of its own officers and clerks?

In certain important respects, the powers of the Board need to be increased, in order that the purposes of existing laws may be carried out. For example, the State Board is already authorized to remove county superintendents for cause and to institute legal proceedings to that end. There is need of a means of enforcement which can be applied more quickly and with less public agitation. Again, certain counties—Calvert, for example—do not pay salary enough to secure the full-time superintendent required by law; others—Dorchester, among them—employed non-certificated persons to teach, in defiance of law; Anne Arundel engages teachers who have not had the six weeks' professional training required by the law of 1914. All these statutes are violated with impunity. They are in fact hardly more than counsels tendered by the state to the local authorities to be heeded or not, as the local authorities see fit. Meanwhile, the state pours its liberal contribution into the county treasury, regardless of whether the law is enforced or broken. Unquestionably, the State Board should be authorized in such cases to withhold the state appropriation until the laws are complied with.

We have repeatedly noted the absence of a uniform method of certificating teachers. There are, indeed, more standards than there are counties, since the State Board, the State Superintendent, and the county superintendents all participate. The State Board should be invested with full powers over the examination and certification of teachers, including county superintendents, supervisors, principals, and attendance officers. Conditions favor this uniform standard, for under the law, the same salaries are paid in most counties. Under this arrangement the examinations of elementary teachers would be held as now at stated intervals at the county seats of the respective counties. The questions would be prepared and the answers read by the State Superintendent and his assistants, while the county superintendents would merely conduct the examinations and certify to the character of the applicants. The great mass of teachers would therefore be in no way inconvenienced by the centralization of authority.

A final suggestion deals with school buildings. Maryland possesses a few school buildings as good as any to be found in the entire country. But whether a new building is well planned or not is now a matter of accident. The results have been pointed out in preceding chapters. To introduce system, where chance now rules, the State Board should receive the authority to prescribe regulations governing the building of schoolhouses and the State Superintendent, as its executive officer, should be required, after examining plans and specifications, to



Consolidated rural high school built in 1914, with bad fighting

give written approval before building contracts become valid.

In this, as in other respects, the State Board must act through its executive officer, the State Superintendent. But the resources at the disposal of the Superintendent, inadequate at present, need to be extended as well as specialized, if the office is to be made efficient. With his single assistant, the State Superintendent cannot now inspect and direct the high schools as the law expects; nor can he advise with local authorities in reference to their local problems—the school levy, new buildings, school statistics, the county course of study, the colored industrial schools, or the condition of public sentiment. At the very least, the Superintendent's staff must be increased to include an assistant superintendent, to be in charge of the correspondence, publications, records, reports, educational statistics, and the audit of the accounts of the county school boards; a supervisor of high schools, charged with the supervision of state-aided high schools and the work of all other schools above the seventh grade; a supervisor of rural schools, who shall give his entire energies to helping teachers, superintendents, and interested communities work out a program of rural education adapted to the individual and collective needs of a state that is overwhelmingly rural in its population, industries, and interests; and a white supervisor of colored schools. The Superintendent should have a reasonable allowance for travelling and for clerical aid. The total annual cost of the office of the State Superin-

tendent will be thus increased from \$7,700 to perhaps \$20,000 a year. The increase is large, not because the proposed program is elaborate, but because the former basis was utterly inadequate. The expense of conducting the state department must be regarded as an overhead charge incurred for the purpose of getting better results from the state's present school expenditure. Is it not economy to spend \$20,000 in order that \$1,500,000 raised by the state may be wisely rather than inefficiently used and that \$3,500,000 raised locally may be more effectively expended? Moreover, the increased cost of the state department does not mean increased taxation or increased appropriations; for it is paid for, not by the state treasury, but by the school fund, and it is wisdom to make sure of an effective central administration if the counties do get a few hundred dollars less apiece. Even so, there need be no fear that the state department will be unduly strong. The counties retain their proper power and authority; the state department is simply enabled to coöperate with them intelligently, and the state fund is, as it should be, the lever, by means of which the counties can be brought into line.

XI. IMPROVEMENTS IN THE COUNTY ORGANIZATION

A STRENGTHENED State Department of Education must, as we have just said, be accompanied by a strengthened county educational organization. To this end three steps must be taken: the county school boards must be placed on an educational, instead of a political, basis; they must be made reasonably independent on the financial side; and they must be provided with an adequate professional staff.

The county boards should represent local interest in education. Can such boards be constituted without regard to political considerations if appointments continue to be made by the Governor? Certainly, politics will creep in, unless public sentiment is vigilant, intelligent, and determined. The present law should be so modified as to concentrate responsibility in the Governor, who should not be permitted to share his responsibility with the Senate. The Governor will thus be in position to make his educational appointments without deferring to political influences. Otherwise, with a change of administration, Democrats will succeed Republicans, and vice versa, irrespective of past services or efficiency.

County school boards in the next place must be given

a reasonable degree of financial freedom. Financial independence is needed not only to complete the liberation of the boards from county politics, but to put them in position to do their duty by the schools. There is not a county in the state, as previously pointed out, in which the schools have not suffered from unjustifiable lack of funds. So acute did the needs in five counties become—and among these are the largest and financially the strongest—Baltimore, Allegany, Frederick, Montgomery, and Prince George, that, as we have remarked, recourse was had to the General Assembly for legislation compelling financial action on the part of the county commissioners. If the largest and richest counties cannot wring from the county commissioners ample funds for the schools, boards of education in smaller and less wealthy counties must surely find themselves in an impossible position.

It was never intended, if we read the law aright, that the county commissioners should really control school finances. They were expected simply to protect the taxpayer against waste, as is proved by the fact that the commissioners are required to levy the taxes, demanded by the County Board of Education, up to a certain limit. Beyond this limit, the county commissioners enjoy discretion obviously meant to enable them to check extravagance, not to block progress. Unfortunately, the present mandatory rate that must be levied on the request of the county educational authorities is entirely inadequate; so inadequate, that funds are insufficient

even when additional levies from 1 to 28 cents on \$100 are raised. The remedy must be sought in the first place in raising the mandatory limit.

Just where the limit should be placed is not easy to determine. No county now raises more money than it ought. Hence the mandatory limit up to which county commissioners must act on the request of the school boards should approximate the highest rates now levied. Four counties now levy in excess of 40 cents on the \$100: Garrett, 45 cents; Worcester, 44; Queen Anne and Allegany, 43. In view of the needs of the schools even in these counties, a mandatory maximum rate of 50 cents on the \$100 for the state would not be excessive. It does not follow that this maximum will be requested unless it is needed or can be afforded. School boards are just as amenable to local considerations as other bodies. They are not likely to go faster than local sentiment approves or local resources allow.

Even then, a levy of 50 cents on \$100 will not pay for new buildings: no feasible current levy could or should. A school building that has a life of twenty-five years or more should be paid for by the successive generations who use it—that is, by a bond issue. At present a bond issue for school building requires legislative action and therefore often involves log-rolling and politics. The state should have a general law permitting counties to issue bonds for the erection of buildings up to a fixed per cent. of the assessable property of the county, and also empowering them to hold a special election if this

amount is to be exceeded. Five per cent. is the usual maximum, but in Louisiana it is 10 per cent., and in Virginia, 18 per cent.

If the suggestions just made should be written into the law, it would be possible for the counties to do their duty by the schools. Even then the counties might, of course, be recalcitrant. The remedy is easy. Maryland now distributes an unusually large sum in aid of education without requiring from the counties an adequate "quid pro quo." In consequence, the counties that receive most do least. As a pre-condition to receiving any part of the state's largess at all, every county should be required first to make a fixed local minimum school levy. This minimum local levy ought not to be lower than the present average local levy for all the counties taken together—viz., 34 cents on the \$100. Even a minimum local levy of 34 cents would materially affect only eight counties. These are, however, the very counties that should be affected—rich counties like Carroll, Howard, Talbot, and Washington, because they are relying too much on the state; and poor counties like Anne Arundel, Calvert, Charles, and St. Mary's, because they are doing too little for themselves.

Let us assume that in the ways above mentioned local education is more effectively financed. Does it follow that more money will make better schools? Not necessarily. The present organization in most counties cannot really use to good purpose much larger sums than are now spent. If the supply of money is

to be increased, steps must be taken to ensure its wise expenditure.

The counties—we need hardly repeat that there are exceptions—need more competent educational leadership. No one should be eligible to a county superintendency unless he possesses definite professional qualifications and teaching experience. The County Superintendent should be a college graduate who has had at least five years of actual experience in the elementary schools, and not less than one year of professional work in an approved university specializing in educational administration and supervision. His appointment should require the written approval of the State Superintendent. His tenure should be at least four and preferably six years; he should be chosen in the middle, not at the beginning, of the Governor's term of office; his salary should not be permitted to fall below a given minimum, and the state should pay from the school fund one-half of any salary up to a certain sum. Progressive counties, like Allegheny and Baltimore, will gladly pay more than the maximum in which the state would share, in order to retain in their service able and experienced leaders.

A County Superintendent who is thus qualified should bear full responsibility for the conduct of the schools in conformity with the state laws. He should have authority over the courses of study, the choice of text-books and school supplies, the grading of the schools, the examination and promotion of pupils, and over the employment and the placing of teachers in the schools. Of especial

importance in Maryland is the point mentioned last. Politics and personal interest will not be eliminated from the schools of Maryland while County School Board members continue to be influential in the appointment of assistant teachers, and district trustees select the principal teacher in their respective schools. Teachers and principals should be appointed by the County Board on nomination by the County Superintendent. The power of local trustees should be limited to filing written charges with the County Board, while the dismissal in each case should be made only on the recommendation of the Superintendent with the approval of the Board. Local pride and interest must indeed be cultivated; but it is believed that both are best conserved by whatever measures make for school efficiency.

All but four counties in Maryland now suffer woefully from lack of supervision, though county school boards possess the power to provide the needed professional help, having been authorized in 1904, under limitations, to employ assistant superintendents and, in 1910, to engage a supervisor. Thus far five counties have chosen assistant superintendents, three of whom do the work of clerks, and only four have full-time supervisors. The employment of supervisors should cease to be permissive. Every county employing 100 teachers or more should be required to have at least one supervisor, and counties should be permitted to have as many more as may be locally thought desirable.¹ The state should guard

¹Two small counties each having less than 100 teachers should be allowed to join in employing a supervisor.

against incompetent supervision by prescribing minimum qualifications—viz., graduation from a standard normal school, three years of experience as a teacher in the elementary schools, and at least one year of special preparation beyond the normal in a reputable university. A salary commensurate with the importance of the service should be fixed by the state, half of it to be paid out of the school fund. As an additional safeguard the appointment of supervisors should be invalid until approved in writing by the State Superintendent.

Into schools improved as the schools of Maryland would be improved by such steps as have been above recommended, the children of the state must be regularly and continuously brought. School enrolment must be synonymous with school population; school attendance must approximate school enrolment. To this end the state requires a genuine—not an optional—compulsory attendance law, affecting all children between eight and fourteen years of age. But compulsory education does not enforce itself. Hence the employment of at least one attendance officer whose qualifications are certified to and whose appointment is approved by the State Superintendent should be made mandatory upon the counties. To secure properly qualified persons for this important work, the state, sharing equally in the payment with the counties, should guarantee a minimum annual salary.

Finally, in order that competent educational officials may do the work awaiting them, decent quarters and a fair amount of office help are necessary. The state should

therefore require county boards of education to provide satisfactory office facilities, to employ adequate clerical assistance—never less than one stenographic and statistical clerk—and to bear the expenses necessary to the performance of official duties. In case of failure, the State Board of Education should be authorized to withhold the funds of the state.

The suggestions made in the present and the preceding chapters are not counsels of perfection. They represent what, if it will, Maryland can easily do to improve its educational organization and to provide this improved organization with requisite facilities. Our suggestions need not go further. We need add nothing to what we have already said on such subjects as teacher training, courses of study, sanitation, etc. These are, to be sure, the really important problems; but they are problems which can be solved only by the educational leaders and the teachers of the state. Given qualified leaders working under the fairly favorable conditions which our suggestions aim to procure, everything else that the schools of Maryland lack will come in its proper season.

XII. FINANCIAL READJUSTMENTS

THE changes proposed in the State Department of Education and in the county school organization furnish additional reasons for adopting a new policy in the use and distribution of state school funds.

Maryland has, as was pointed out, several different school funds, real or "so-called." These funds established at widely different times, and under radically different conditions, are all distributed in different ways. To derive the greatest benefit from the present liberal support Maryland as a state is giving to public education, some of these "so-called" school funds should be abolished and the others combined into a single fund to be known as the General State School Fund.

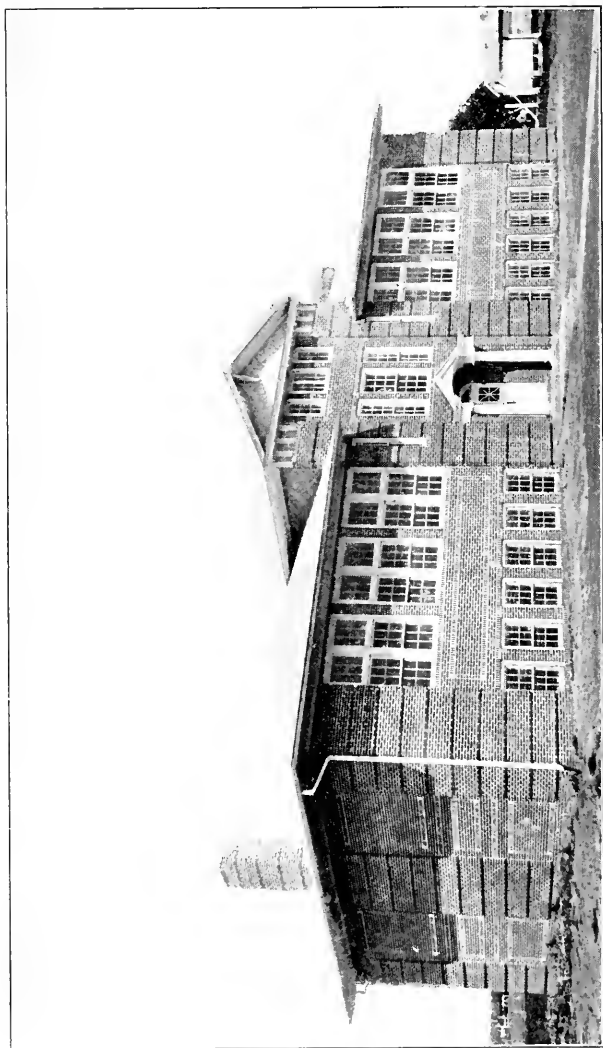
This policy involves the abolition of the Academic Fund and the Bank Stock Fund, and the discontinuance of special appropriations. In the case of special appropriations, why should the entire state be taxed in order that a single academy may be singled out for a special gift, or in order that a particular town may be presented with a school building on exceptionally favorable terms? Again, the Academic Fund now bolsters up decrepit academies in the very shadow of the new and vigorous

state-aided high schools. Its abolition will save \$26,000, and education will gain, not lose. The Bank Stock Fund, as has been pointed out, is held by the state in the name of nineteen counties. The entire amount, \$278,000, should be paid over to the counties to be used in their discretion—perhaps for buildings. The road would thus be cleared for a single fund to be distributed on a scientific basis.

Into this single or General State School Fund all the remaining items should be brought—(a) the return from the War Loan of 1812, now amounting to \$229,000, the only productive school fund of the state, and (b) the Surplus Revenue Fund, the principal of which was spent, the state obligating itself, however, to provide forever an annual income of \$34,069. The identity and the continuity of the War Loan of 1812 and of the Surplus Revenue Fund¹ should, of course, be preserved. The consolidation of these funds would simplify the work of accounting, and facilitate an equitable distribution of the state's contribution to the counties.

From this General State School Fund should come, in the first place, such sums as are needed for the reorganized state and county organizations and for such lines of educational activity as the state desires to develop. The

¹The constitutional requirements could probably be met if legal provision were made for raising the income on the Surplus Revenue Fund as a part of the state school tax, to be distributed according to the provisions controlling the distribution of the General State School Fund. Were this done, the Surplus Revenue Fund could be dropped from the current accounts.



Sudlersville High School. Modern structure for which the state of Maryland appropriated \$7,500

preceding chapters have dealt so fully with these points that further discussion is needless. To only one point need special attention be called.

Maryland adopted in 1896 the policy of furnishing free text-books; since which date it has apportioned to the counties and the city of Baltimore \$150,000 annually, amounting in 1914 to 61 cents per child enrolled.

This is a wise policy, though somewhat too narrowly conceived. The materials of instruction comprise more than text-books, and often a good teacher can do quite as well without text-books as without maps, illustrative matter, handwork and drawing materials, supplementary readers, reference books, and the like. The law indeed provides that, after text-books have been purchased, any surplus remaining may be expended upon maps of Maryland and supplementary readers; in most counties, however, there is and can be no surplus. The sum originally provided was even at the time insufficient, and since then the enrolment has increased 26,000, of whom 2,800 are high school pupils. In the very first year of the apportionment the counties spent on school supplies 8 cents per child and Baltimore City 36 cents in excess of the amount received from the state; and in 1914 the average per child for the counties was 20 cents and for Baltimore City 65 cents.

This excess expenditure, naturally enough, is largely confined to a few of the prosperous counties, the majority spending no more than is received from the state. The average County Board of Education could scarcely be ex-

pected to spend more. As a consequence, the supply of reference books and supplementary readers is, as a rule, woefully inadequate, and books are often dog-eared and unsanitary. In a number of counties there are few if any maps and no illustrative material at all; in more than half the counties objectionable slates are in use; in not to exceed three counties are handwork and drawing materials freely supplied.

To furnish free text-books, including supplementary readers, reference books, school supplies, handwork, and drawing materials, in adequate quantities, the present apportionment of \$150,000 should be materially increased.¹ So long as the materials of instruction supplied are as meagre as they now are in many of the counties, to expect teachers to do good work is like asking them "to make bricks without straw."

Deductions from the state school fund for special purposes have been made before now; hence, no new principle is established by the foregoing recommendations. Nor will they, if heeded, seriously reduce the amount available for distribution. Indeed, in consequence of the recent increase of the school tax to 17 cents, the total next year would probably not fall much below the sum of \$1,353,000, the amount distributed in 1914. In any event, the sum, whatever it is, will be more effective in connection with an improved organization than would a larger sum, without it, and it should be distributed, in

¹The average per-pupil cost in typical cities of from five to ten thousand is, for elementary pupils, \$2.12, and for high school pupils, \$4.90.

view of the special aid provided for high schools, so as to equalize elementary school advantages.

In thus distributing the general school fund, three factors ought to be considered: (a) the school population between six and fourteen years of age, (b) school attendance, (c) the comparative wealth of the counties. For practical purposes, however, only the first two factors can at this moment be taken into consideration; for the counties do not at present assess property uniformly,¹ and until they do, it would be unjust to take from those that estimate their wealth justly in order to give to those that make an unfairly low return of their property. On the existing basis counties with a high rate of assessment would indeed be twice penalized: they would pay an undue part of the state tax and they would receive a reduced amount from the state. Hence the adoption of a thoroughly sound and equitable method of distributing state school funds will need to be delayed until such time as the method of assessment becomes uniform. Meanwhile, every county should be required to make a minimum levy, and no part of the state apportionment should be paid to a county that fails to comply with this requirement. It goes without saying that any county is free to raise more than the minimum fixed by law.

There is no reason, however, why the precise portion of the general school fund due the several counties should not immediately be determined on the basis of the actual

¹Report of Commission for the Revision of the Taxation System pp. 13-15.

school population between the ages of six and fourteen, and the aggregate school attendance. Children between six and fourteen represent the work to be done in the elementary schools; the aggregate days of attendance represent the part accomplished. If the state's aid is based on the school population between six and fourteen the state assists each county according to its elementary school burden; if it is modified according as these children come to school or not, the state makes of its aid—as it should—a powerful lever in the carrying out of a general policy. The adoption of this suggestion would not materially affect the amounts now received by the counties and the city of Baltimore, but it would stimulate effort to get children in school and to keep them regular in attendance.



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